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ABSTRACT

This monograph results from a series of papers presented at Brevard Community College during the 1975-76 academic year as part of a lecture series in postsecondary education. Issues discussed include: (1) the future of community college governance relative to increasing federal regulatory involvement; (2) institutional goals as essential ingredients in the process of educational planning; (3) the need for a learning model for "new" students in higher education; (4) coping with increasing demands for education outside of traditional structures; (5) innovations in humanistic education and their implications; (6) implications of regional cooperation and coordination in postsecondary education for the community college; (7) creation of supportive learning environments; and (8) problems and benefits of educational planning. Contributors to this volume include Louis Bender, Robert Breuder, Maxwell King, K. Patricia Cross, Edmund Gleazer, Jr., Terry O'Banion, S. V. Martorana, John Roueche, and James Wattenbarger. It is envisioned that the essays contained in this volume will serve as a catalyst for discussion from which innovative and exciting ideas will result. (Author/JDS)

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CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION:

With Emphasis On The Community/Junior College

edited by

Maxwell C. King and Robert L. Breuder

BREVARD COMMUNITY COLLEGE
Cocoa, Florida 32922
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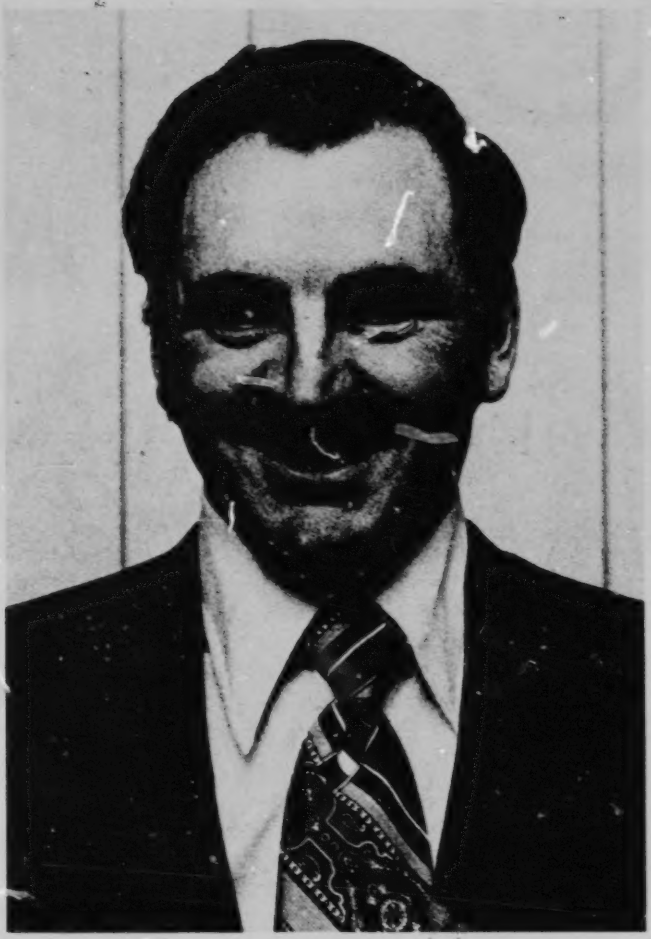
INTRODUCTION

This monograph results from a series of papers presented at Brevard Community College during the 1975-76 academic year as part of a lecture series in postsecondary education. The lecture series was one of several professional development activities made possible through Staff and Program Development funding. It is envisioned that the essays contained herein will serve as a catalyst for discussion from which innovative and exciting ideas will result.

The fourth quarter of the twentieth century will provide many new challenges for postsecondary education. The "new" student in higher education, the increased role of government in the affairs of colleges and universities, and the increased demand for accountability and sharing of resources are several of the issues that will impinge upon the educational process and must therefore be addressed. The need to engage in sound educational planning, to create an environment which maximizes learning, and to introduce innovative and humanistic processes into the total educational program are certain to take on added importance as we approach the turn of the century.

The editors wish to express their appreciation to Sally Larson, Kay Kehoe and Nina Miller for their assistance in the preparation of the manuscripts. A special thanks is extended to those leaders in education who visited the College to identify and discuss some of the Contemporary Issues in Postsecondary Education.

M.C.K.
R.L.B.



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1984: WHAT GOVERNANCE FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES?

by

Louis W. Bender

When Bob Breuder asked me to be with you back in October, he suggested that I talk to you about some of the state and federal developments which could have implications for the community college. Bob had just read a monograph I prepared for the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges titled The States, Communities, and Control of the Community College. He felt that that publication would be an appropriate basis for the paper he was asking me to present today. I asked him to confirm his invitation by letter and to indicate the title or topic which he would like me to address. So I want all of you to know that the title of this paper was developed by Bob Breuder, not me. I'm not sure whether he chose 1984 because of the famous book on "Big Brother" or because he assumed I would present something that is "far out."

The AACJC monograph was written as a result of a meeting convened one year ago this month by Ed Gleazer of past presidents and chairmen of the AACJC Boards from 1966 through 1974. That group was discussing "What's Ahead of Us on the Horizon?" A major concern on the horizon identified by that group was the drift toward state control and then that group commissioned Ed to have a monograph developed.

One of my major theses within the monograph was that too many of us are aiming at the wrong target when we conclude that the governance of the community college is in jeopardy because of the drift toward state control. Too frequently, I believe, we think in terms of the incumbent officials in the state agency responsible for community colleges without examining the precursors which are bringing about more paper work, greater formalization, and restrictive procedural requirements. I believe the federal government becomes a major villain when we examine the problem in depth and more thoroughly.

This coming week NCHEMS (The National Center for Higher Education Management Systems) will hold its 1976

National Assembly. One of the topics to be addressed is titled "The Federal Government: The Third Party in Institutional-State Relations". I intend to give you some evidence today that the topic might be better retitled, "The Federal Government: The First Party in Institutional-State Relations."

Now why should you as individual faculty and staff members be concerned or interested in the topic identified by Bob Breuder or by the position which I will be presenting? How will this in any way impinge upon your day-to-day activities? Well, it may be indirect and subtle, but each one of us here most assuredly will feel the growing presence of federal involvement. Art Cohen recently expressed his concern in a speech titled "Will There Be a Community College in Year 2000?"

Nature and Growth of Federal Role

The historic tenet that education is a responsibility of each state seemed to survive for the first century of our country. When grants of land were made for the benefit of education during the "Northwest Territory" expansion, there were no strings attached. The federal land (or the funds from the sale of federal land) was for the purpose of education but no policing and no directional control was exerted from the federal level at that time. With the passage of the Morril Act, we find the first subtle intrusion which probably was not even viewed as significant at that time. The Morril Act required that any institution endowed with the federal land or funds was to be state controlled. Several states demonstrated the art of satisfying governmental requirements while maintaining their own independence by creating quasi-public institutions. In New York State, Cornell University is really made up of two entities, one private and the other, an agricultural and mechanical component, is state or public. Pennsylvania State University is still described as a "state-related" institution since it was able to maintain its private status while qualifying for the land grant designation in that state.

The Second Morril Act of 1890 moved more visibly toward federal encroachment when it specified that the president of every land grant college would submit an annual report to the Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of the Treasury. Again, the requirements imposed in order to

receive federal funds probably did not seem to be much. In reality, however, there had been a shift from a "no strings" posture to one of mandatory reporting by the centennial anniversary of our country.

Now let us look at the nature of the federal role from the 1960s to the present which should enable us to project a little bit toward 1984. Most federal programs have been based upon an incentive principle whereby federal dollars are used to entice states or institutions to participate while assuming concomitant obligation consistent with the particular purpose or program. Federal programs have understandably evolved as national crises or national interests have emerged.

A recent monograph developed by the Institute for Educational Leadership at the George Washington University analyzes the incentive grant approach in higher education during the past fifteen years. It lists four discreet thrusts which have developed by examining the pattern of grants which have been made. The first major area or thrust was directed toward pure research. This could be easily associated with Sputnik and the race to the moon. The second was improving teaching and learning in response to student protests and the campus unrest of the sixties. Community outreach and manpower training areas was the third major thrust in the early seventies precipitated from social and economic issues. The fourth in the past few years has been pressure for cooperation and resource sharing among instituituons in response to declining resources. Now all of these priorities seem worthy and certainly consistent with the interests of community colleges in Florida or in other states. The difficulty is, however, that the incentive grant approach must have someone or somebody establishing the priorities and making the decision as to which institutions and states will receive the funds. Here we find not only the priorities of Congress in the various legislative acts of the 60s and the 70s; but also, the personal interpretations and values of central staff at the federal level who review proposals and who have the real power in determining the grants sweepstakes.

Let's now examine some of the specific federal programs and how they are impacting upon state and local community college governance. The Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963 initiated two significant federal provisions related to governance. The first called for state plans so that

the facilities monies could be used equitably. None of us would argue with the principle, nor would we feel that planning which resulted since that time has not been desirable. But students of systems would immediately caution us that it is not so simple, since state plans for facility development necessarily is inter-related with curriculum and program offerings, personnel, and a myriad of other facets of institutional operation. An immediate requirement emanating from the federal level was for more information to be sure the federal monies were used appropriately for educational facilities. We had the beginning of HEGIS (Higher Educational General Information Survey) which began with only a few areas of information and data being sought and which now has expanded to nine different areas. Private institutions which had jealously maintained autonomy and even secrecy of operations were for the first time forced to comply in order to receive federal monies.

Let us now jump to the Higher Education Amendments of 1972 where a dramatic shift occurred both in the philosophy of operation and potential implications for governance structures. Whereas the federal programs of the sixties had been institution-based to a great extent, the basic educational opportunity grants of 1972 were predicated upon a "free or open market" principle. The concept was that institutions would become more accountable if the student consumers were provided the funds and thus as consumers would shop for excellence in educational programs. Few recalled that the state plans advocated from the federal level in the mid 60s were intended to reduce competition, chaos, and conflict among different institutions. The early role and scope concepts of state master plans designed to foster specific missions and purposes for different segments of institutions were abruptly and almost totally disregarded in the new shift. As a result, one of the governance problems confronting many states today is the dilemma of competition and duplication of offerings among both public and private institutions.

Emerging Federal Role

In an article in the December issue of the Kappan magazine, I cautioned colleges and universities to be aware of the consumer protection strategies being proposed by the Federal Trade Commission for the profit-oriented proprietary sector of postsecondary education. With the open market

concept of the 1972 Amendments, Congress declared its intent to go beyond the earlier concept of higher education and to encompass all of postsecondary education, including proprietary schools. With that action, students receiving federal grants can attend a proprietary school as well as a community college or any other postsecondary institution. The proprietaries, however, are regulated by the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) since education or training becomes a commodity when the profit motive is considered. One of the major responsibilities of the FTC is consumer protection and it has for the last year been investigating the practices of proprietary schools and has now proposed new guides which, if formally adopted later this year, could have immediate implications for proprietary schools and, I believe, future implications for all postsecondary institutions.

Let us review first some of the precursors to the FTC action. Carolyn Helliwell of the American Institutes for Research in Palo Alto, California conducted research into complaints registered with the FTC and the U.S. Office of Education. Dr. Helliwell categorized the "incidents" or complaints which were addressed to agencies. A summary of complaint categories identified were:

1. Inequitable refund policies and failure to make timely tuition and fee refunds.

2. Misleading recruiting and admission practices.

3. Inadequate instructional programs.

4. Inadequate instructional staff.

5. Lack of necessary disclosure in written documents.

6. Inadequate instructional equipment and facilities.

7. Lack of adequate job placement services (if promised), and lack of adequate follow-through practices.

8. Lack of adequate student selection/orientation practices.

9. Inadequate housing facilities.

10. Untrue or misleading advertising.

11. Lack of adequate practices for keeping student records.

12. Excessive instability in the instructional staff

13. Misrepresentation or misuse of chartered, approved, or accredited status.

14. Lack of adequate financial stability.[1]

All of us would acknowledge the desirability for consumer protection. I am sure we would also acknowledge that many non-profit public and private institutions would be vulnerable to the same complaints as those leveled at the proprietaries. In fact, the courts already have numerous cases on the docket under several of those categories which are aimed at public or private institutions.

There are two dangerous governance implications which I would like to share with you. First, among the proposals to the U.S. Office of Education for addressing the problem of consumer protection is the advocacy of a regulatory approach. The American Institutes for Research has itself received a grant from the Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation of the U. S. Office of Education to develop instruments or forms which would be designed to collect "consumer information" as opposed to "management information" for use by USOE. Now notice how the governance becomes enmeshed for we now find the American Institutes for Research offering as one strategy to have accrediting associations assume the regulatory or policing responsibilities associated with consumer protection. That organization proposed that there are four potential approaches including:

1. Turning the entire regulatory function over to the states and improving their regulatory effectiveness.

2. Turning the entire regulatory function over to the private accrediting bodies and improving their regulatory effectiveness.

3. Turning the entire regulatory function over to a super federal agency or

4. Any combination of the above.[2]

Notice that the organization does not acknowledge the role of the local institution. It should be clear, however, that there would be significant changes in the governance of community colleges under any one of the four proposed strategies.

The second dangerous implication can be seen in the proposed new regulations of the FTC aimed at the proprietary schools. Let me acknowledge that I personally believe that the proprietary sector and other interests will ultimately force similar rules or requirements upon the non profit educational institutions if the FTC adopts the proposed new rules. The rules cover advertising, disclosure, and cooling off and refund requirements. Now recognize that community colleges advertise before nearly every new academic session through public media. The catalogue of the institution can be classified as advertising as well. Admissions officers when counseling a student are also conducting a form of advertising and thus would come under the new rules. The FTC is interested in guarantees against false or misleading advertising, a most desirable objective. But note how the governance of the community college would be affected. In order to do any advertising, concerning career programs or possible employment opportunities of students, the institution would have to clearly document how the program had been successful. In other words, it would be necessary to show exactly who had completed programs at the institution, where they were employed, the salary they received and how soon after completing the program they had been employed. In addition, the disclosure provision calls for the institution to clearly identify the number of students enrolled in each program, the number and percentage of those who dropped out before completing the program and then what happened to those who in fact did complete the program. Think of the students in your classes. Could you clearly identify what happened to each student including date of employment, salary, and so forth? How would your department be judged in the eyes of the public if you were required each quarter to provide public disclosure of the number of students who dropped out and those who did not find employment in the field for which they had prepared?

The cooling off and refund requirements proposed by the FTC is intended to protect the consumer against institutions retaining funds for which services were not rendered. Again it is a desirable principle but examine the procedures proposed. Under the cooling off requirement, each student who registers for admission must be sent through certified mail an explanation of the disclosure provision and then given ten days to "cool off" as it relates to admission. Imagine the amount of funds which would be forced upon your college budget by the postage expense alone! The procedure, however, requires that the institution include an "affirmation reply form" in which the student must sign indicating a reaffirmation of desire to be admitted to the institution. If the student fails to return the affirmation form, then the institution is obligated to refund any monies paid to the institution at the time of registration.

Consider the confusion, consider the cost of such a procedure. In an editorial in the last issue of Change magazine, George Bonham illustrates some of the consequences of the myriad of new federal regulations which endanger every institution. They include:

1. This year's total cost to higher educational institutions of federally mandated programs alone is estimated by Change at $2 billion – or the equivalent of the total of all voluntary giving to institutions of higher education.

2. Some federal agencies play a cat-and-mouse game with colleges and universities, giving them, in effect, as little as one week's notice to comply with complex regulations and legislation.

3. At the state level, we estimate that with every new bureaucrat added to the legislative or executive payroll to oversee postsecondary education, another three college and university administrators must be added in a typically populous state.

4. "Affirmative Action" advertising, federally imposed on the colleges and universities, is now estimated to cost institutions at least $6 million a year, though few professional placements ever result from such national advertisements.

5. The Internal Revenue Service is now threatening to withdraw tax-exempt status from any

educational institution-- private or public-- that does not practice "equal opportunities" in its recruitment of students.

6. Other governmental agencies demand countless bits of useless data, from the names and addresses of all incoming students to a detailed analysis of how faculty spend their time. Follow-up data of recent alumni must now be compiled and published for the benefit of student applicants, while some states demand a complete accounting of every professional membership fee, every journal subscription, and every gross of paper clips spent by an educational institution, down to the last dollar.

7. State accountability requirements often parallel federal requirements, but often exceed them, duplicating and triplicating data collection and reporting-out procedures. And regional offices of federal agencies-- particularly those of Health, Education and Welfare-- will often go beyond those requirements mandated by Washington, thus creating further havoc in some regions of the country.[3]

And 1984?

Notice that in my discussion of federal legislation I have not commented on the Smith-Hughes and other Vocational Education Acts. This was deliberate for it may be that the governance of 1984 will closely parallel that which has evolved from vocational education legislation. As you know, the Smith-Hughes Act was unique for various reasons. First, it was the only significant education legislation at the federal level which came about as the result of lobbying from the education sector prior to the Emergency Committee on Full Funding during Nixon's administration. Secondly, the Smith-Hughes Act was designed by Vocational educators with the goal of protecting themselves against intrusion or defeat from the academic groups which has historically down-played vocational education. To accomplish this, an entirely new governance and administrative structure was created from the federal to the institutional level. That is the reason why we have the Division of Vocational Education in Florida which is really program-oriented while the Division of Community Colleges and the Board of Regents are institution-oriented. If we study the consequences of that legislation, we soon find an exceedingly tight control from the federal level with prescribed reporting forms, specific criteria, and even course

content guidelines which in many states become prescriptive and mandatory at the local level. We know also that a tremendous bureaucracy has developed with thousands at the federal level and hundreds of bureaucrats at each state level that are expected to carry out prescribed regulatory and control provisions. At the rate and in the direction of present federal involvement, I would suggest a real danger exists for more and more federal prescription with many offices and bureaus being established at state capitals to police and to control. As noted in the Change editorial, we already see this in affirmative action requirements and it would be possible to list many more if we had more time.

Some Questions

I would hope that the faculty and staff of Brevard Community College would give serious thought to five questions I shall present. It is my belief that community colleges are best equipped to counteract the possible governance model I have described for 1984. This can only be done, however, if all of us in the community colleges begin to identify the problems and issues and to work collectively with other community colleges to force our national leaders and the members of Congress to change direction. Among the questions that I would leave with you for discussion are:

1. The Problem of Mission

   How can the community college clearly establish its mission so that it will be understood both within and without the institution? What can be done to bring about public cognizance of and governmental support for the community college as a distinct institution with a specific role and scope different from other postsecondary institutions?

2. The Problem of Locus of Policy-Making

   How can the community college maintain its individuality and diversity reflective of its indigenous environment in view of the press for standardization and uniformity emanating from federal and state policies and procedures? How can the community college be responsive to community education needs if the locus of policy and priority-making is at the state rather than the local level?

3. The Problem of Overlapping Jurisdictions

   What can be done to counteract or accomodate the growth of overlapping and competing bureaucratic jurisdictions at federal, regional, and state levels which impinge upon the operation of the community college?

4. The Problem of Internecine Warfare

   What can be done to avoid the internecine conflicts among postsecondary education institutions, including community colleges, growing out of competition of the free-market principle which has superseded earlier role and scope philosophies of state coordination? What safeguards can be taken to avoid conflict within the community college sector itself?

5. The Problem of Local Initiative

   What can be done to foster and promote local initiative?
   How does the local community college interact in the political process so that its mission can be achieved? [4]

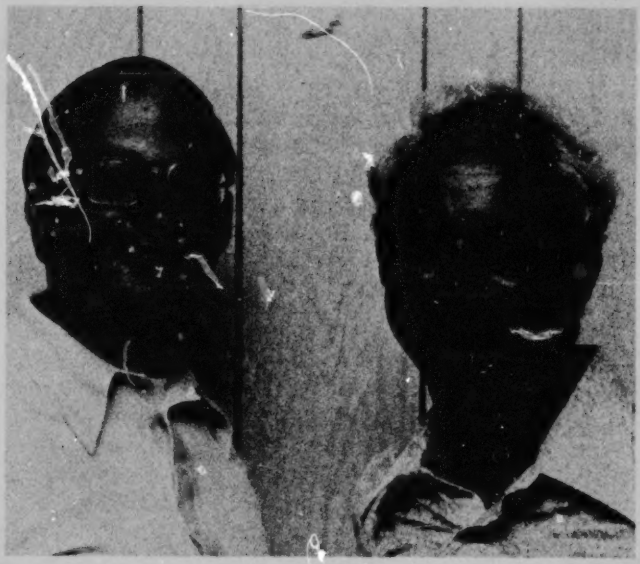
FOOTNOTES

1. Steven M. Jung et al. Study Design and Analysis Plan: Improving the Consumer Protection Function in Postsecondary Education. American Institutes for Research. Palo Alto, California. October 1975, pp. 7, 12.

2. Ibid, p. 7.

3. Louis W. Bender. "Will Government Patronage Kill the Universities?" CHANGE, December-January, 1975-76, pp. 10-11.

4. Louis W. Bender. The States, Communities, and Control of the Community College: Issues and Recommendations. American Association of Community and Junior Colleges. Washington, D.C., 1975.



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INSTITUTIONAL GOALS: AN ESSENTIAL INGREDIENT IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

by

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Maxwell C. King

More than 1900 years ago the Roman philosopher Seneca concluded, "When a man does not know what harbor he is making for, no wind is the right wind." Similarly, we may conclude, an educational institution today, which has not identified and set forth clear and explicit goals will be unable to provide the necessary focus and direction needed to achieve its prescribed mission. Peterson expressed the urgency of establishing goals when he says:

> "It seems essential in these times that colleges articulate their goals; to give direction to present and future work; to provide an ideology that can nurture internal cooperation, communication, and trust; to enable appraisal of the institution as a means-end system; to afford a basis for public understanding and support. Indeed, the college without the inclination or will to define itself, to chart a course for itself, can look forward to no future – to a kind of half life of constantly responding to shifting pressures — or to a future laid down by some external authority.[1]"

One would suppose that by now the question of educational goals would have been fairly well settled, and the problem of how to define them would have found some useful answers. But the question is still very much open. The problem of goals is today, more than ever, a top priority and a largely unsolved problem. In spite of all the hard thinking and earnest talk about educational goals and how to define them, the goals produced have been essentially non-functional. There are many reasons why they have been non-functional

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[1]Peterson, Richard E. The Crises of Purpose: Definition and Uses of Institutional Goals. Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, p. 11.

but among the most common are: 1. too much reliance on the magic of words; 2. too little public participation in formulating goals; 3. too little understanding of what a goal is; and, 4. too great a readiness to assume that goals are already established and require only to be achieved. Such weaknesses must be overcome if goals are to successfully serve their intended purpose.

The goals of which Peterson speaks are derived from the institution's mission statement — a statement of single purpose which is a hoped for accomplishment. Goals are usually broad and may not be quantifiable. Once goals have been established, measurable objectives can then be set, and strategies for obtaining them devised. By evaluating each strategy in terms of resources needed and possible outcomes, a plan of action can be determined.

In general, there are two kinds of goals: outcome and support (process). Outcome goals are ends the college seeks to realize and are eventually translated into precise, measurable objectives. Goals of a supportive nature, when attained, facilitate reaching the outcome goals. Essentially, they are intended to optimize previously identified outcome goals.

Institutional goal determination has two end-products: identification of goals and establishment of priorities among goals. An institution's "goals structure," its rank ordering of goals, can be said determined when some level of consensus has been reached through a process that is democratic and participatory. Goals must be developed which accomodate the needs of diverse constituencies and respond to changing and conflicting societal demands. In order for an institution to identify goals considered important by the community it serves, it must identify a method of transforming expressed needs into meaningful goals.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

During the three year period 1972-75, Brevard Community College committed itself to participating in a Florida Community/Junior College Needs Assessment Consortium whose goal was the construction of a vehicle which would uncover the educational needs of the community, as well as classify, organize, and prioritize them for each college to use in its administrative decision-making process.

A major component of the overall Needs Assessment Consortium activity was to identify an effective process through which a community/junior college "family" could revise college goals in line with identified community needs. In addition to participation in other consortium activities, Brevard Community College undertook and completed the specific mission of designing and testing a goals-setting model which would interface with the community needs assessment model. It was felt by consortium members that the model which was to be developed should involve all affected interest groups (e.g., students, faculty, staff, administrators, trustees, and community representatives), prioritize identified college goals, and be directly related to community needs. The purpose of this paper is to present selected data collected through implementation of the designed institutional goals-setting model and demonstrate how it can be used in educational planning.

GOALS-SETTING MODEL

Several factors were used as guidelines in the development of the goals-setting model. If the model was to serve its intended purpose, it would not only need to be relatively easy for institutional personnel to comprehend and implement, but be economically feasible in terms of output received, account for differences among institutions, and be reflective of both the nature and purpose of the community/junior college.

The goals-setting model contained nine steps ranging from the creation of a college committee and appointment of a project director, through the preparation of institutional objectives. The goals-setting process was designed to commence in September, and to be concluded by April of the same academic year. Institutional goals were determined through a combination of committee deliberations and community input obtained through the administration of a survey instrument.

The survey instrument selected for use was the Institutional Goals Inventory (I.G.I.) developed by the Educational Testing Service. The I.G.I. was judged to be superior (in terms of goals statement coverage, flexibility, and ease of administration) to other known goals inventories.

The I.G.I. is a tool used by many college communities

to delineate goals and establish priorities among them. The instrument does not tell colleges what to do in order to reach the goals. Instead, it provides a means by which many individuals and constituent groups can contribute their thinking about desired institutional goals.

The inventory is composed of 90 goal statements - statements which attempt to conceptualize, in a meaningful way, the spectrum of goals of American colleges and universities in the early 1970's - divided into twenty goal areas. There are four goal statements per goal area with ten goal statements categorized under the rubric "miscellaneous." The twenty goal statements are divided into thirteen outcome goals and seven process goals.

For each of the goal statements appearing in the inventory booklet, the respondent is asked to check the degree of importance of the institution on a five point scale. In addition, they are asked to respond to the goal statements both in terms of perceived existing goals and goal preferences ("is" and "should be").

Three of the most important features of the I.G.I. are: 1. there is space provided for rating up to twenty additional goal statements written by local campus people to cover goals of special relevance to the institution and not included in the inventory; 2. an institution can determine the goal opinions of up to five different groups (e.g., students, faculty, administrators, community personnel and staff); and, 3. institutions in a consortium, for example, could combine their data for analysis so long as similar keying techniques were followed.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Population

The population in this investigation consisted of: 1. residents of Brevard County; 2. full-time and part-time students attending Brevard Community College; 3. full-time instructional faculty at Brevard Community College; and, 4. administrative personnel at Brevard Community College.

Sample

All administrative personnel (N=46) and full-time instructional faculty (N=190) were selected to participate in

the investigation. A random sample of 300 Brevard Community College students and 300 Brevard County residents was drawn. Eight-hundred and thirty-six persons were asked to complete the I.G.I.

Four-hundred and forty-six (53%) Institutional Goal Inventories were returned and considered usable. Figure 1 shows the number and percentage of returns by sub-group.

Figure 1
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF INVENTORY RETURNS BY SUB-GROUP

Sub-Group	Inventories Sent	Returned	
	N	N	%
BCC Administrators	46	44	96
BCC Faculty	190	155	82
BCC Students	300	138	46
Brevard County Residents	300	109	36
Totals	(836)	(446)	(53)

RESULTS

Abstract

Data gathered through the administration of the I.G.I. permitted the following observations to be made:

- even though there is considerable agreement on what "is" and "should be" the goals of the college, there also exists significant disagreement;
- there are some significant differences of opinion of what "is" and "should be" the priority of goals at the College;
- whereas the four respondent sub-groups often agree on what "is" and "should be" the goals of the College, significant differences in perception are frequent; and,
- goal priorities for one sub-group are generally not shared by other sub-groups.

Findings

Table 1, on page 20, presents goal area summaries for the total group rank ordered by "is" and "should be" means and discrepancy factors. This table shows that inventory respondents believe greater importance "should be" given to each of the twenty goal areas than currently "is". The goal area with the largest discrepancy is *individual personal development* (+1.23), with *community* (+1.17) and *intellectual orientation* (+1.14) following respectively. The smallest discrepancy factors are in the goal areas *cultural aesthetic awareness* (+.36), *freedom* (+.46), and *accountability/ efficiency* (+.59), respectively, indicating that the College is more on target.

Respondents clearly feel that *vocational preparation* "is" and "should be" the most important goal at the College. Although *academic development* "is" currently perceived as the second most important goal area, respondents felt that it "should be" ranked sixth. The reverse is true for *community*. *Traditional religiousness*, *advanced training*, and *research* are considered of low importance as goal areas. In comparing "is" and "should be" mean rankings, it can be seen that in six *(intellectual orientation, individual personal development, human altruism, democratic governance, community*, and *intellectual/aesthetic environment*" of the twenty goal areas, the "should be" mean is ranked higher than the "is" mean.

Although "*advanced training*" is considered to be of low importance as an institutional goal, the standard deviations of 1.04 ("is" mean) and 1.44 ("should be" mean) would seem to indicate that there is more disagreement among respondents than in other goal areas. A standard deviation of .70 indicates that there is more agreement among respondents as to whether "*vocational preparation*" "should be" a goal at the College than whether it "is" a goal. The appearance of "*vocational preparation,*" "*community,*" "*individual personal development,*" and "*meeting local needs*" among the top five "should be" goals, reflects the nature and purpose of the community college.

Goal area discrepancy factors rank ordered by sub-group are depicted in Table 2. From the data presented in this Table, it can be seen that faculty members are the only sub-group which did not rank the goal area "*individual personal development*" number one in terms of discrepancy

TABLE 1:

GOAL AREA SUMMARIES FOR TOTAL GROUP RANK ORDERED BY "IS" AND "SHOULD BE" MEANS AND DISCREPANCY FACTORS

Goal Area	"Is" Mean	"Is" Rank	"Should Be" Mean	"Should Be" Rank	Discrepancy* Factor	Discrepancy* Rank
OUTCOME GOALS						
Academic Development	3.19 **(.87)	2	3.81 (.85)	6	+.62	14
Intellectual Orientation	2.87 (.89)	8	4.01 (.79)	4	+1.14	3
Individual Personal Development	2.81 (.93)	11	4.04 (.86)	3	+1.23	1
Humanism/Altruism	2.98 (.97)	13	3.99 (1.03)	11	+1.01	4
Cultural Aesthetic Awareness	2.81 (.86)	11	3.17 (.91)	14	+.36	19
Traditional Religiousness	1.74 (.91)	16	2.33 (1.28)	19	+.59	16
Vocational Preparation	3.30 (.86)	1	4.30 (.70)	1	+.98	6
Advanced Training	2.11 (1.04)	16	2.71 (1.44)	18	+.60	15
Research	2.09 (.97)	17	2.72 (1.26)	17	+.63	13
Meeting Local Needs	3.16 (.85)	3	3.92 (.86)	5	+.76	11
Public Service	2.72 (.93)	12	3.50 (.99)	12	+.77	10
Social Egalitarianism	2.96 (.96)	7	3.90 (1.00)	10	+.94	12
Social Criticism/ Activism	2.44 (.91)	14	3.06 (1.14)	15	+.62	14
PROCESS GOALS						
Freedom	3.02 (1.00)	5	3.48 (1.11)	13	+.46	18
Democratic Governance	2.91 (.[illegible])	11	3.78 (.91)	7	+.87	8
Community	3.01 (.95)	6	4.18 (.74)	2	+1.17	2
Interpersonal/Aesthetic Environment	2.83 (.99)	10	3.78 (.87)	7	+.95	7
Innovation	2.94 (.86)	9	3.86 (.91)	9	+.92	8
Off-Campus Learning	2.23 (.91)	15	3.03 (1.20)	16	+.80	9
Accountability/ Efficiency	3.09 (.91)	4	3.68 (.87)	8	+.59	17

* "Should Be" mean minus "Is" mean.

** Standard Deviation.

TABLE 2: GOAL AREA DISCREPANCY FACTORS RANK ORDERED BY SUB-GROUP

Goal Area	Sub-Group							
	Student (N=138)		Community (N=109)		Faculty (N=106)		Administration (N=66)	
	Factor*	Rank	Factor	Rank	Factor	Rank	Factor	Rank
OUTCOME GOALS								
Academic Development	+.87	16	+.71	11	+.96	9	+.30	17
Intellectual Orientation	+1.07	4	+1.21	2	+1.10	3	+.97	3
Individual Personal Development	+1.30	1	+1.34	1	+1.10	4	+1.17	1
Humanism/Altruism	+1.07	4	+1.04	4	+.96	6	+.90	4
Cultural Aesthetic Awareness	+.40	19	+.33	19	+.41	17	+.21	19
Traditional Religiousness	+.82	12	+.84	14	+.41	17	+.35	14
Vocational Preparation	+1.10	2	+1.19	3	+.79	8	+.77	6
Advanced Training	+1.01	3	+.75	9	+.25	18	+.09	19
Research	+.86	10	+.74	10	+.44	16	+.28	16
Meeting Local Needs	+.77	14	+.91	8	+.86	10	+.86	10
Public Service	+.93	7	+.83	7	+.86	10	+.80	12
Social Egalitarianism	+.79	13	+.86	13	+.82	14	+.91	11
Social Criticism/Activism	+.74	15	+.66	16	+.86	11	+.30	13
PROCESS GOALS								
Freedom	+.44	18	+.40	17	+.60	13	+.39	18
Democratic Governance	+.84	11	+.83	15	+1.42	2	+.86	9
Community	+.96	8	+.91	8	+1.05	1	+.96	2
Intellectual/Aesthetic Awareness	+.96	8	+.59	8	+1.05	5	+.74	7
Innovation	+.89	9	+.71	11	+.79	7	+.86	5
Off-Campus Learning	+1.04	6	+.81	8	+.61	12	+.67	8
Accountability/Efficiency	+.62	17	+.79	12	+.47	15	+.67	8

* "Should Be" mean minus "Is" mean.

between "is" and "should be" means. Each, however, agreed a significant (significance is defined as a difference of +1.0 or greater) discrepancy existed. Students and community members clearly believe a significant discrepancy exists with the goal area "*vocational preparation.*"

Students feel that in the goal area of "*advanced training,*" a significant discrepancy exists. Collected data clearly shows there exists some misunderstanding within "groups" outside the institution as to what are legitimate goals of the College. That faculty members are more sensitive about goals related to "*freedom*" and "*democratic governance,*" students about "*off-campus learning*" and "*social criticism/activism,*" community members about "*meeting local needs*" and "*vocational preparation,*" and administrators about "*accountability/efficiency*" is of little surprise. That faculty should feel as strongly about "*community*" and, though less so, "*intellectual/aesthetic awareness,*" is noteworthy.

Table 3 and 4 are perhaps the most informative tables presented for the reader's review. Table 3 contains fifteen goal statements with highest "should be" means rank ordered by total group. Inventory respondents indicated that each of the goals listed in Table 3 "should be" of high importance as an institutional goal. As can be seen, respondents feel the goal *to provide students an opportunity for training in specific careers - accounting, nursing, etc.* (## 26) "should be" the most important goal at Brevard Community College. *To provide continuing educational opportunities for local area adults - on a part-time basis* (#29) and *to provide the most effective learning resources* (## 94) are ranked second and third, respectively.

To provide retraining opportunities for individuals whose job skills are out of date (## 36) and *to provide opportunities for students to prepare for specific vocational and technical careers* (## 91) are two goals which one would have suspected would appear in this Table by virtue of the College's location and stated mission. The appearance of the goal, *to be concerned about the efficiency with which college operations are conducted* (## 83), reflects the tenor of the times in American post-secondary education. Concern for the complete educational development of the individual and a "free" academic environment is evident.

In the last table, Table 4, fifteen goal statements with

TABLE 3: FIFTEEN GOAL STATEMENTS WITH HIGHEST "SHOULD BE" MEANS RANK ORDERED BY TOTAL GROUP

Goal Statement	"Should Be" Mean	"Should Be" Rank
20. To provide students an opportunity for training in specific careers -- accounting, nursing, etc.	4.44	1
29. To provide continuing educational opportunities for local area adults -- on part-time basis	4.43	2
24. To provide the most effective learning resources	4.40	3
19. To maintain a climate of mutual trust and respect among students/faculty/administrators	4.39	4
21. To provide opportunities for students to prepare for specific vocational and technical careers	4.37	5
3. To help students identify their own personal goals and develop means of achieving them	4.36	6
12. To ensure that students who graduate achieve some level of reading/writing/math competency	4.36	6
18. To create an environment characterized by high morale and dedication among the staff, faculty, and administration	4.33	7
22. To provide academic, vocational, avocational and personal counseling services for students	4.29	8
30. To develop educational programs geared to new and emerging career fields	4.26	9
34. To assist students in deciding upon a vocational career	4.21	10
28. To provide retraining opportunities for individuals whose job skills are out of date	4.20	11
16. To maintain a climate of open/candid communication throughout the organizational structure	4.17	12
23. To be concerned about the efficiency with which college operations are conducted	4.14	13
5. To help students develop a sense of self-worth/self-confidence and a capacity for important events	4.10	14

TABLE 4: FIFTEEN GOAL STATEMENTS WITH LARGEST DISCREPANCY FACTORS RANK ORDERED BY TOTAL GROUP

Goal Statement	Discrepancy* Factor	Rank
10 To instill in students a life-long commitment to learning	+1.32	1
**3 To help students identify their own personal goals and develop means of achieving them	+1.30	2
**65 To maintain a climate of mutual trust and and respect among students/faculty/administrators	+1.27	3
**50. To maintain a climate of open/candid communication throughout the organizational structure	+1.26	4
**8 To help students develop a sense of self-worth/self-confidence and a capacity for impact on events	+1.25	5
13 To help students be open, honest, and trusting in their relationships with others	+1.24	6
5 To increase the desire and ability of students to undertake self-directed learning	+1.22	7
64 To assure that everyone may participate/be represented in making decisions affecting them	+1.20	8
76 To create an institution known widely as an intellectually exciting and stimulating place	+1.20	8
**66 To create an environment characterized by high morale and dedication among the staff, faculty, and administration	+1.20	8
100 To improve critical thinking ability	+1.18	9
**12 To assure that students who graduate achieve some level of reading/writing/math competency	+1.18	10
11 To help students achieve deeper levels of self-understanding	+1.13	11
**38 To assist students in deciding upon a vocational career	+1.12	12
58 To maintain a climate where faculty commitment to goals of institutions is as strong as career commitment	+1.11	13

* "Should Be" mean minus "Is" mean.

** Goal statement also listed as one of the 15 highest "Should Be" means.

the largest discrepancy factors are rank ordered by group. Respondents are of the opinion that the largest discrepancy (+1.32) exists in the goal *to instill in students a life-long commitment to learning* (## 10). Each of the fifteen goal discrepancies appearing in the Table are considered significant.

It is most important to point out that seven of the goal statements, number: 3, 65, 59, 8, 95, 12, and 38 (preceded by a double asterisk), not only contain significant discrepancy factors, but are also listed in Table 3 as having one of the fifteen highest "should be" means. This means that these are goals which the respondent group not only believes "should be" of top priority, but also those for which the College has the furthest to go to achieve.

CONCLUSION

The identification of college goals and achieving consensus, or reasonable agreement upon them from diverse groups, is only the first major step. If succeeding steps are not taken, there is a high probability that such a set of goal statements would be no more meaningful than many "mission" statements now found in college catalogs. Consequently, there exists the need for institutional goals to be made more explicit and measurable in the form of institutional objectives. By translating the goals into clear, concise, quantifiable objectives, the incremental progress toward goals can provide focus for directing activities designed to achieve certain results. Objectives can guide in the allocation of human and fiscal resources for short and long-range planning to attain those goals which have received the institution's highest priority.

The data presented in this paper is representative of the total study undertaken and completed at Brevard Community College. Information derived through the investigation supports the broad mission of community colleges and assisted educational planners at the College in identifying new directions and priorities. The message obtained through interpretation of the collected data is clear: community colleges must concern themselves with the qualitative development of the "whole person." Despite those factors in the macro- and micro-environment which adversely impinge upon the educational process, college personnel must continue to offer the best of programs to the student community.

As the influx of students with varied educational backgrounds increases, the need to identify, implement and evaluate alternative, non-traditional instructional techniques traverses the academic continum from being desirable, to being essential.

For post-secondary education to survive and prosper during the last quarter of the twentieth century, those persons comprising the community college "family" must join hands, in a spirit of freedom and commitment, and play an active role in academic decision-making and educational planning. Educational change is inevitable and occurring at an increased rate. We can either meet that change, with its associated challenges, through sound educational planning, or avoid it and face the ultimate consequence: our inability to control our destiny. The challenges which face educators in 1976 are no less important and demanding than those of the past. We must move forward with courage and conviction; contributing to the further development of community college education through sound educational planning.

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NEEDED: A LEARNING MODEL FOR THE NEW STUDENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by

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American higher education has worked hard for the past quarter of a century to achieve educational opportunity for all. It looks very much as though we shall spend the remaining 25 years of this century working to achieve education for each. The problems of attaining minimal educational rights for everyone have been so consuming that we have not given full attention to the greater challenge of designing educational experiences that will provide maximum learning for individuals.

Throughout the 1950's and into the '70's, we have concentrated on "access" models to bring about equality of educational opportunity. One by one the barriers to a college education have been lowered or removed. Financial aid to students increased 6,000 percent between 1954 and 1974. The explosive growth of community colleges and open-admission practices virtually eliminated the barriers imposed by poor educational backgrounds. Special recruitment programs reached the uninformed and unmotivated. As a result, the 1960's represented unprecedented growth in college enrollments – an increase of 124 percent in a single decade (Carnegie Commission, 1971). Most of that increase has come from the previously unserved segments of the population. They have made us aware of how we discriminate against individuals by stereotyping them as members of groups designated as Black, female, Spanish-American, senior citizen, part-time student, American Indian, or any of a number of special labels that inevitably represent more diversity of talents and needs within groups than between them. While certain cultural issues can be addressed through Black studies or gerontology or women's studies, educators cannot design learning programs to develop individual potential by knowing the color, age, or sex of students.

In discussing the new clientele in higher education, I am going to abandon the old familiar categories of ethnic minorities, women, and adult part-time learners in favor of descriptors related more directly to learning needs and characteristics.

We know now that there are significant individual differneces on three major dimensions of learning. People differ in learning rate, learning style, and in their motivation and talents for various types of learning tasks. This means that if we expect learning to have maximum impact on the development of individuals, we must offer options with respect to pacing, method of instruction, and curricular content.

It is sometimes assumed that individually-tailored educational programs are too costly to implement in these times of academic austerity. But if cost effectiveness is to be the measure, then it appears that we can no longer afford to educate only those students who thrive on the existing options. A semester course that moves too fast for the lowest third of the class and bores the upper third is hardly cost effective when it offers optimal pacing conditions to only one-third of the students. Ironically, we are discovering that mass education is not the inevitable route to education for the masses. The very diversity of the masses calls for the abandonment of the mass education that seemed to work fairly well in the days of more homogeneous student bodies.

The provision of quality education that makes a difference to individuals is the task that lies ahead, and educators are beginning to meet that challenge. The new surge of interest in a variety of techniques and methods known collectively as the individualization of instruction is a movement of sufficient magnitude that is not inappropriate to call it the

We should be delighted with our progress, but the high optimism of the 1960's has faded into disillusionment in the 1970's. Although we have proved that we can deliver on our promise to open the doors of access to college, we have not demonstrated that we can deliver an education that is attractive and useful to the majority of Americans. Ironically, the more successful we are in achieving the goals of the Access Model -- education for everyone -- the less the commercial value of the certificate. The college degree has lost that part of its glitter that was due to its exclusiveness. It is already clear that the degree per se is not an automatic passport to a better job. Increasingly, people are looking beyond the certificate to see what education has done for the individual. If the Access Model is to have meaning, it must be supported by a Learning Model that makes access to higher education more than a hollow victory.

The challenges facing education for the remainder of this century are structured like the layers of an onion. Peel away the layer representing the problems of access, and we reveal a fresh layer of concerns about how higher education is going to deal with the learning needs of the new clientele. This new layer of challenges is increasingly exposed precisely because of the recent breakthroughs made in the access layer.

Fundamentally, the access layer has been concerned with administrative and social issues, rather than with educational and pedagogical issues. The primary goal of the Access Model is the correction of social injustice. Its tools are legislation and the equitable distribution of funds. Its actors are policy makers, federal and state agencies, and administrative officers of colleges. Its descriptors are the now-familiar demographic categories of race, socioeconomic status, sex, and age. The weakness of the Access Model is that it concentrates on attaining minimum rights rather than maximum opportunities; it involves administrative rather than instructional activities; and the demographic variables used to describe the new learners are of dubious value in planning educational programs.

The first step in tackling the problems involved in quality education is for each to devise some better descriptors. The old demographic descriptors have served their purpose. Instructional Revolution (Cross, 1975). The movement is broad in its influence, deep in its demands for change, and relatively sudden in its acceptance by educators. And breadth, depth, and speed of change are characteristics of educational as well as political revolutions.

Self-paced learning, and its conceptual companion, mastery learning, lie at the heart of the Instructional Revolution. The speed with which these teaching strategies have been introduced into a great variety of educational institutions is almost beyond belief. In my recent survey of two-year colleges (Cross, 1975), I discovered that in the short span of three years, the use of self-paced learning modules had spread from 31 percent of the colleges in 1971 to 68 percent by 1974. The Personalized System of Instruction (also known as PSI or the Keller Plan) uses the self-paced learning module as its basic component, and PSI has made an astounding sweep through university classes, especially in disciplines such as psychology, engineering, and physics.

More interesting than speed and breadth of adoption of self-pacing is its revolutionary potential for upsetting conventional ways of thinking about education. The simple formula for mastery learning is that the student must learn to master a unit, regardless of how long it takes. This is quite the reverse of traditional education which insists that all students spend equal amounts of time in the classroom but permits them to learn to varying levels of accomplishment. In traditional education we turn out students who are well educated and those who are not, but we certify that all have spent the same amount of time at the task – surely a meaningless measure of learning. The conventional grading system does not solve the problem; it just acknowledges that some students learned a lot in the time specified and received A's and B's, while others learned little and received D's and F's. If Bloom and other scholars are correct in their assertion that anyone can learn a subject to mastery if given adequate time and appropriate help, then we have a breakthrough that permits us to provide for individual differences through holding achievement constant (mastery for everyone) and letting time vary.

The concept of mastery learning raises havoc with habitual ways of thinking about learning, but it makes much better sense educationally than the traditional measuring system. If what we teach is important, then presumably whether students learn it is more important than how long it takes them. Furthermore, if what we teach is related to what a person is able to do with knowledge, then we should certify knowledge by the number of learning units mastered rather than by how much the student learned in a semester relative to his classmates.

Mastery learning has special significance for the education of the non-traditional learners that I have called New Students – those with poor records of past academic performance (Cross, 1971). Its advantages to New Students are both cognitive and affective. It lays the cognitive foundation for future learning by insisting that one unit must be mastered before the student may proceed to subsequent learning. And it carries an affective message through demonstration to low-achieving students that they too are capable of doing good work. To most New Students, those two critically important experiences are missing from most of traditional education. New Students are perpetually at a cognitive disadvantage in school because they are rushed along

to advanced learning without laying the foundation of the more elementary concepts. It is almost impossible to gain anything from a study of algebra without knowing the multiplication tables, and it is difficult to grasp the significance of history in the absence of an adequate reading vocabulary. To the extent that knowledge is cumulative and sequential, efficiency in learning depends upon mastering each step in turn. Research demonstrates that as children proceed through school, the bright gets brighter and the dull get duller as the gap between achievers and non-achievers increases (Coleman and others, 1966). The widening gap is probably due to the efficiency factor in learning. Whereas achievers have the tools and the background to make good use of further education, the future learning of non-achievers is perpetually thwarted by their failure to master fundamentals.

Even worse than the cognitive handicaps wrought by traditional education's notion that everyone should move along with the group, is the affective damage done to young people who are offered no alternative to doing poor work. Rarely do "new" students experience the satisfaction of doing school work in which they can take pride. Mastery learning permits "new" students, for perhaps the first time in their lives, to do well -- as well as anyone in the class -- at school learning tasks.

While mastery learning has undeniable merit for individual learners, it also has some unsung advantages for the educational system. Mastery learning is the only educational concept that I know of right now that offers a solution to the concern about the erosion of academic standards. If all students master the subject matter, then the charge of lower academic standards for "new" students cannot be leveled at egalitarian higher education.

In the strange logic of higher education, however, the very idea that every student in the class can learn a subject to the same high level of achievement is unacceptable to some "standards buffs." If every student studies the learning unit until he masters it, then every student deserves an A -- if by an A grade we mean to certify that the student has mastered the learning task and not simply that he is one of the best in a particular class. A grading curve with mostly A's is completely sound educationally, but it is anathema to those accustomed to thinking of educational results measured by

the bell-shaped normal curve. The normal curve, after all, is a statistical tool designed to reflect the result of random processes. If there are no factors operating except chance, then the normal curve is the result. To the extent that purposeful, directed influences are operating, the curve should depart from a chance distribution. Education is not a random process; the outcome of successful education should push the grading curve away from anything resembling a chance distribution.

Logical as the argument is, custom has made us so accepting of the normal grading curve that teachers who give more A's and B's than D's and F's are looked upon as "soft graders" instead of effective teachers. Many people equate the preservation of the normal grading curve with the preservation of academic standards. Actually, standards are served only when students learn the material, and there is ample research evidence that students do learn the material better under conditions of mastery learning (Cross, 1975).

So far most of the creative energy that has gone into the Instructional Revolution has been directed toward the seemingly modest goal of breaking the lockstep of education with respect to time requirements. But the challenge of individual differences in learning is more complicated than dividing people into "fast" and "slow" learners. People are fast learners in one subject perhaps, and slow in another, or they learn rapidly by one method and more slowly when a different approach is used. I may learn quickly by being shown, for example, but slowly if I must read a manual of instructions. Once again, we face the analogy of the layers of the onion. When we have provided for individual differences in learning rates through self-pacing options, we will face a fresh layer of challenges revealing the need to find methods of instruction that will be optimal for learners with different preferences and styles of learning.

It now seems clear that we are not going to improve instruction by finding the method or methods that are good for all people. By and large, the research on teaching effectiveness has been inconclusive and disappointing because, I suspect, we were asking the wrong questions. When we ask whether discussion is better than lecture, whether TV is as good as a live performance, whether programmed instruction is an improvement over more traditional methods, we find that for that mythical statistical average student, it seems to

make little difference how we teach. But when we look at the data, student by student, it is clear that some students improve, some remain unaffected, and a few actually regress under various teaching conditions. The very process of averaging the pluses, the minuses, and the non-changers wipes out the message that different methods work for different students. Psychologists are now asking the more sophisticated interaction questions about which methods work for which students.

Unfortunately, not one teacher or counselor in a hundred knows anything at all about cognitive styles despite the fact that research on cognitive style has been going on for some 25 years in psychology laboratories. In my survey of two-year colleges last year, I found that only 10 percent of the colleges had had any experience with the concept of cognitive style in educational programming (Cross, 1975). That is too bad, because Herman Witkin, a pioneer in cognitive style research, asserts that there is now clear research evidence that "...cognitive style is a potent variable in students' academic choices and vocational preferences, in students' academic development through their school careers, in how students learn and how teachers teach, and in how students and teachers interact in the classroom (Witkin, 1973, p. 1)."

There are at least a dozen separate cognitive style dimensions that have been the subject of systematic research, and perhaps half a dozen more that have been identified but not extensively studied. In addition, there are now some variations on the theme that have been devised not by researchers, but by educational practitioners seeking an implementation of the common-sense observation that people have characteristic ways of learning.

I shall limit my discussion, however, to the dimension studied by Herman Witkin and his colleagues at Educational Testing Service. Witkin's dimension of field-dependence vs. field-independence is far and away the most extensively studied cognitive style, with more than 2,000 studies reported in the literature. Field-dependence-independence was introduced in 1954 as a research measure useful in the psychology of perception. Witkin discovered that some people see things and situations in toto without distinguishing the elements that make up the whole, whereas others tend to see discrete elements, which are then put together to give the

total picture. The reason for the name field-dependence-independence is dramatically illustrated by a laboratory experiment in which the subject is seated in a darkened room with a luminous rod in a luminous picture frame which has been set aslant. The task is to set the rod to the true vertical position. With remarkable consistency, some people align the rod to the slant of the frame -- swearing that it is vertical when it may slant as much as 30 degrees. Others ignore the frame, apparently using internal cues to set the rod upright. Those who ignore the surrounding field formed by the luminous frame are called field-independent, whereas those who depend on the slant of the frame to give them their orientation for positioning the rod are termed field-dependent.

Other laboratory experiments demonstrate that people show consistent individual differences in the extent to which they are influenced by a surrounding field -- not only in visual perception, but in auditory, kinetic, and social situations as well. Obviously, one's perception of a problem or learning situation will influence how one goes about solving the problem, and it will also help to determine the nature of the content that is remembered. Problem-solving and memory, of course, are familiar components of the learning process. But cognitive styles are also related to less obvious educational variables. Research has shown that they are associated with interests, abilities, and even with self-concepts. In fact, the way in which people perceive themselves, relative to their surroundings, is one of the most interesting findings from cognitive style research.

Not surprisingly, people who are dependent on the surrounding field to define physical situations are also field-dependent with respect to social situations. Field-dependents tend to be interested and sensitive to what other people are thinking and doing; they tend to be conforming and they like to have people around them. Field-independents, on the other hand, are more internally directed; they are not as sensitive to their surrounding social field, nor are they as concerned about what others may think. Predictably, field-dependents are drawn to fields of study that involve people and human relations -- social services, counseling, and teaching; whereas field-independents favor the sciences -- mathematics, biology, and engineering. Although cognitive style seems not to be related in significant ways to IQ, field-dependents are likely to have trouble with the analytical

tasks demanded by school subjects such as mathematics and science. I am beginning to suspect that the school system favors the field-independent learner to the detriment of field-dependent students. Let me give some examples.

Although we know that social situations often present highly effective learning experiences, the traditional classroom is not a very social place. Beginning with their earliest experiences, children are cautioned not to talk to their neighbors, to keep their eyes on their own papers, and to do their own work. Rarely do we permit, let along encourage, social problem-solving. This throw-back to the years when independence had survival value for pioneers on the rugged frontier is especially self-defeating in today's world where survival may be related more to one's ability to cooperate with others than to go it alone. More people lose their jobs because of failure in interpersonal relations than because of lack of job skills. Divorce, alienation, and people-related problems are major maladies of our times. Yet the educational system is still geared to the reward of independence, not often balanced by equal rewards for interpersonal cooperation. The independent learner, I suggest, has an advantage over the field-dependent learner in the methods and attitudes of traditional school systems.

There are other differences between field-dependents and field-independents that have educational significance. Research indicates that the more analytical field-independents seem to structure their own learning material, whereas the more intuitive field-dependents benefit from greater external structure. Since there are many similarities between field-dependent learners and "new" students, I suspect that "new" students may be over represented on the field-dependence end of the cognitive style continum. We need more applied research on the question, but one teaching strategy that seems suggested for "new" students is one that provides clear structure – behavioral objectives for example – in an atmosphere of warm interpersonal cooperation. Without knowing much about the research on cognitive styles, many community college teachers seem to have reached a similar conclusion through working with "new" students in the classroom (Wilson and others, 1975). I believe that we are on our way in practice as well as through research, to making some breakthroughs in the Learning Model.

So far I have made two proposals for the implemen-

tation of a Learning Model to supplement and strengthen the benefits expected from the Access Model. I have suggested the not very radical notion that we should deliberately build into our educational system provisions for individual differences with respect to learning rates and learning styles. My third suggestion for change is more controversial because it involves the curriculum. I have suggested in earlier speeches and writings that for the good of society as well as individuals, we need to broaden the curriculum to encourage the development of a wider spectrum of human abilities than those represented in the academic disciplines. Specifically, I have suggested that we should deliberately and consciously teach interpersonal skills and that we should make such subject matter an academically respectable component of the college curriculum (Cross, 1971).

Society has a rapidly escalating need for people with the interests, abilities, and highly developed skills to work effectively with other people, and individuals have a need to contribute their best talents to the improvement of society and to be recognized for the value of their contribution. It is apparent now that we cannot hope to build a humane and advanced society on the narrow skill foundations of the traditional academic disciplines. It is also apparent that we will never achieve equality of opportunity as long as we insist that everyone be good in the same things. There is, after all, only room for the "upper half" to be "above average" in a society that measures value and talent along narrowly conceived dimensions. While there is an obvious need in today's society for every student to master the fundamentals of the communications skills, there is no need to emphasize the single-minded development of academic talent at the expense of other kinds of human abilities that can be nurtured through the design of appropriate educational programs.

History documents a slow but steady expansion of the college curriculum. But no new subject matter has ever been introduced without facing heavy criticism from those worried about the dilution of academic content and the erosion of standards. When the land-grant colleges broadened the classical curricula to include applied subjects such as agriculture and engineering, the resistance was enormous. Its residue is still apparent today when applied subjects are accorded lower status than the "pure" disciplines in the academic hierarchy. When community colleges put the stamp of legitimacy on the college teaching of vocational subjects such

as auto mechanics and data processing, some academicians once again dealt with the threat by according the vocational curriculum lower status in the academic pecking order. But the teaching of agriculture and engineering, and later, auto mechanics and data processing, has proved important to society, and their gradual acceptance into the curriculum represents steady evolutionary – though hardly revolutionary – progress.

Once again, it is time for curricular evolution. There is a need for new content options accompanied by new methods of instruction. We don't know everything we need to know about developing the curriculum for the teaching of interpersonal skills. The methods of instruction will be different – much as the teaching of the applied sciences differ from the teaching of the classics. But it is time to get on with the task of developing a Learning Model for higher education that will maximize the development of the rich variety of individual talents brought to higher education through the success of the Access Model. We can do this, I suggest, by individualizing education with respect to pacing, cognitive style, and curricular content.

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Dr. Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.

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THE ADDICTIVE INFLUENCE OF EDUCATION: WHAT DO WE DO ABOUT IT?

by

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Our structures of production and consumption in education have been built on the assumption of a terminal point. That assumption no longer holds.

A community college president reports the largest headcount increase in the eight-year history of his institution - 20,500 students in credit classes. He expects another 20,000 students in non-credit offerings.

> - "Given a specific need," writes a New York President, "we can serve as an educational broker to assemble the response ingredients necessary to meet that need, even when we have no campus space available, no existing inhouse staff competency, and no existing budget. The broker identifies the ingredients needed, finds them, assembles them into a workable package and proceeds on an ad hoc basis . . .What is needed to actualize the brokerage concept is new planning and decisioning structures. Since the broker addresses different demands, he must depart from the usual structures of academe. The forms should be somewhat fluid, changing, versatile, and permit imagination and creativity to survive the effects of compromise."

> - "The biggest thing in Missouri education today is the growth of school services to adults," says the State Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. "This year's curriculum has attracted more than 235,000 men and women. In general adult education alone, which is geared to teaching basic skills, 87,777 adults enrolled through local school districts last year - an increase of 15,000 over the previous year. At a few schools, the number of adults attending evening classes is more than half that of youngsters enrolled during the day."[1]

[1] Compact, Vol. IX, No. 6 (December, 1975), p. 19.

- An Oregon President - "The competency-based curriculum which we have now developed in a dozen programs clearly sets forth the goals and learning outcomes which the student is expected to accomplish. The college is not concerned with whether these competencies are learned in the high school environment or in any other environment as long as the student can demonstrate the mastery of skills listed. . .In 1973-74 one of every seven persons in our community 18 years of age or older enrolled in some course or program - 59,400 people. At the Rock Creek Center we will drop all references to quarters and credits and develop the learning center on a 52-week year and open from 7:00 a.m. until 10:00 p.m. Students will be able to enter the program and leave when they desire or when they have completed modules, units, certificates, or degrees. The time barrier and the idea that there is a completion to learning will be erased."

- West Virginia President - ". . .more than 80% of the students enrolled each semester attend the college on a part-time basis (less than 12 credit hours). This indicator reflects that most students are married and work more than 30 hours per week. Their class schedules and educational programs are integrated with their family commitments and employment responsibilities. Surveys also indicate that students tend to be 'drop-ins' taking classes when their family considerations and work conditions permit."

The same president - "We have an agreement to train 1500 supervisors and front-line foremen in the local steel plant in the principles and techniques of industrial supervision and management. These classes will be offered in-plant and on company time. We also trained 2800 employees and employers in the purposes and procedures of the Occupational Safety and Health Act."

Not only in this country but now wafting around the world are discussions of lifelong learning, recurrent education, sandwich programs, informal education, community schools, community-based education, performance-oriented education, and the science of self learning. In thousands of communities, in millions of people, most of them beyond the traditional college-age, desires for learning oppor-

tunities work their addictive influence. But our skills of conceptualization and illustration have not been sufficient thus far to make graphic the social significance and heartening force of this wide interest in learning activity. Writing in The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, Alfred Kuhn makes the point that scientific discoveries and breakthroughs are never the result of a breakthrough or change in technology, but are the result of a change in paradigm which enables science and technology to "back fill" as it were. Our collective failure has been to describe that new paradigm in compelling enough terms that the measurers of educational progress might be inspired to put down traditional yardsticks and take up new instruments that comprehend and describe the dynamics and worth of this new educational movement.

That there is a growing market for educational services can be easily demonstrated by counting the numbers of people who respond to educational opportunity when it is related to their interests and made easily available to them. Whether opportunity will be truly related to interests and made easily available, whether this encouraging demand for learning will be encouraged, are crucial questions now confronting us in many parts of this country.

Those mounting numbers which in former years appeared to signal success and institutional vitality are causing consternation in some quarters and even suspicion - colleges are accused of "luring" students. In Missouri, members of the Missouri Coordinating Board for Higher Education, faced with thirty percent increases in community college enrollments and consequent financial requirements, declared to the colleges - "your success is ruining us." And they propose that the colleges cease advertising and high school visitations - that the colleges should not "sell" but let people "buy."

A kind of rip tide exists between the interest in lifelong education and the apparently limited financial resources available for conventional education for traditional students. At the same time that Senator Walter F. Mondale introduces a "Lifetime Learning Act," community colleges in Florida express alarm at the possibility of having to partially close the "open door." A newspaper editorial asserts the need for priorities: "As visionary as Florida's educators and law-makers may have been in guiding the state down a road toward lifelong education, this is an expensive trip. And when money is not available, it is necessary to proceed on a priority basis."

But former Secretary of Labor Willard Wirtz is heard to say, "The only answers to limits of growth involve the development of the human resource." And, presumably, that's the work of education.

Conditions for Assessment

How are policy decisions to be made? On what basis will priorities be set? How can it be determined how public resources should be deployed or redeployed? What needs exist? Is there a priority ordering of these needs? What information is required for policy determinations? These are good questions and necessary questions. They are hard and unavoidable, but they cannot be answered without getting back to a beginning. How do we do that?

In the words of Ripley - "Believe It or Not," during the several months I've been contemplating this presentation, the most stimulating approach I've discovered has been utilized in educational planning for developing countries. Frederick Harbison skillfully describes the value of education sector planning for development of nation-wide learning systems, and puts his finger on what I believe is our number one need in American postsecondary education today, which is to be aware of our goals and perspectives.

> "In any sector assessment one must be aware of 'what he is solving for.' Assessments can be made from a variety of perspectives which stem from stated or implied goals. Thus the starting point in a sector analysis in a developing country is the identification of national goals. Sometimes the goals are explicitly stated. ...More often they are implied in speeches of national leaders and statements of political parties. ...In any case, the goals determine the perspectives for analysis, and the perspectives govern the scope of the assessment, the orientation of studies, the choice of relevant facts and data, and the priority problems for which solutions are sought."

In addition to this helpful emphasis upon the essential nature of goals and perspectives in assessment, Harbison touches upon another matter which will be of increasing importance in dealing with educational planning in this "developed" country - the interrelationships of all education and training activities.

This audience will feel at home with Harbison as he comments almost reflectively in surveying the breadth of the sector approach.

> "The most perplexing problem in all cases, however, is the difficulty of evaluating the outputs of these various programs. Here simple quantitative measure is meaningless, and qualitative differences must be distinguished largely by informed judgment."[2]

May I say, Mr. Harbison, it is just as difficult to assess a need as to evaluate an output. Does a man 50 years of age need a course in Philosophy or Ethics? In ordering of priorities would he rank higher or lower than the young woman of eighteen who "needs" a course in calculus? How do you validate a need? On the basis of the individual's declaration or a judgment made by some other party or agency? Is a program to prepare for employment of greater need than one for the more creative utilization of leisure time? Are "credit" courses of greater worth and hence more representative of real needs than "non-credit" courses? Obviously these rather simple questions cannot be dealt with unless more information is available and unless that information is examined against a background of goals. And it is the goals of our society that today need stating or re-stating. No matter how sophisticated the data, it is worse than useless, unless our destinations can be clearly indicated and a working agreement established.

Goals and Plans of Another Time

Twenty years ago there was a generally accepted goal for education in this country. It went something like this - "Every individual shall have opportunity for appropriate education up to the maximum of his potential." At the same time there was great concern over the capacity of post-secondary education to adapt itself to the needs of the "on-coming tide of students." Basic to that adaptation were the state master plans for higher education formulated in the early and mid-fifties. There were new circumstances in the environment. Not only was there a "college-age" population bulge approaching, there were heightened educational aspira-

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[2]Frederick H. Harbison, Education Sector Planning for Development of Nationwide Learning Systems, (Washington, 1973) OLC Paper No. 2, American Council on Education.

tions which had been given possibility in the lives of millions of veterans because of the GI Bill. It became clear that enrollments could double. It also became clear that the solution was not to be found by building new state colleges in every assemblyman's district. State-wide educational opportunities were envisioned through systems of universities, colleges and community colleges. Some functions were de-centralized according to plan, others were centralized, and although there has been some criticism of the planning and coordinative arrangements developed, by and large they have worked quite well up to this point. A massive expansion of the educational capabilities of the nation took place. Educational opportunity was extended and diversified. Florida was a national leader in the process.

Now let me describe briefly some of the changes that took place in community colleges as a result of the great numbers of widely diversified students that came into the hundreds of new institutions established in the 1960's. I refer to the community colleges for two reasons: first, because of my direct knowledge of events there, and secondly, because their capacity for adaptation in the face of new educational requirements put them on the growing edge for all of American education through those years. Many of the influences that were experienced first by these community-based institutions were later felt by most all postsecondary institutions.

In the early 1960's community colleges were established for the first time in more than twenty major cities in this country, cities like Cleveland, Dallas, Miami, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Seattle and St. Louis. In every case, the actual enrollments surpassed by far the expected enrollments. In every case the initial enrollments numbered in the thousands, and no educational institution ever experienced a more diversified student population--not even the comprehensive high school, because in the community college an age dimension was added to the other varied characteristics. There was a social conscience working in our land at the same time that suggested the need for institutions to assume some responsibility for the success of the students served. Community college personnel, particularly in the urban areas, found that the conventional and traditional ways of working with college students had to be changed if the student was to learn. So there was not only concentration upon the student as an individual, but as an individual in his community setting. These were commuting students. They still lived in a community

environment far more hours of each day than they spent in the college. To understand the student, it was necessary to move into the communities. For the community colleges it was a natural thing to do. Most of them had local boards. Many of the people served by the college were active in neighborhood centers, housing areas, community action programs; they were becoming accustomed to having some voice about those community actions that would affect them. Dozens of advisory committees were set up for the various college programs. Increasingly the colleges developed working relationships with manpower development programs, employment agencies, health clinics, apprenticeship programs, community development projects, churches, schools, and other community-based organizations.

It was the impact of a highly diversified student body that forced the colleges to change, to individualize their approaches, to leave the campuses and move into communities, to establish relationships with informal education; and in that process, the network of relationships of the college grew ever wider, the age level continued to move up, the numbers of part-time students continued to mount, the college was to be found in hundreds of locations throughout the area, and the college became an educational resource center for the community to be used by all and usually in cooperation with other educational institutions in the area.

I take the time to give this brief history because the emphasis initially in state planning twenty years ago was, by and large, to increase capacity for the traditional college-age population. The profound socio-economic events in our nation during the past two decades entered our institutions in the persons of our students and changed those institutions. Much more than increased capacity resulted. There has been impressive adaptation of many educational institutions to the needs and interests of an ever-widening spectrum of the total population. Now that movement confronts a perceived limitation of financial means. Limits understandably call for priorities. And priorities raise questions of value. Values require reference points, bench marks, a sense of direction. The greatest danger we face is decisions without agreement upon a sense of direction. How do we get a sense of direction?

Need for New State Studies

I urge the educational institutions in each state to take the necessary steps for a thorough review of educational

services and needs in terms of the significant changes occurring in our society that have implications for the education sector. I have already referred to many of those changes. What goal orientation shall be the reference point? I would suggest that the goal cited earlier be used. It has been expressed in a dozen different ways, but substantially it is that every individual shall have opportunity for appropriate education up to the limits of his or her potential. The first helpful exercise may be to determine whether that goal should be amended or modified--and if so, how.

I further suggest that these studies begin with assessment of educational needs at the community level and involve broad participation of the citizenry. Such participation has a number of advantages - the level of abstraction can be lowered, validity may be assured by consultation with large numbers of people, and understanding among taxpayers and voters may be increased.

There is something else that might result from broad discussion of educational needs and services and the values we hold in making those determinations. The value structure of American education is necessarily connected to the nation's goals. At this time there is a pervading sense of need for a national direction; and with all the opportunities provided by the Bicentennial for an examination of our national heritage and a declaration of the nation's future course, the words often have a hollow ring. Education has been seen by a good many Americans as the most important social institution toward achieving the national goals of the past. Perhaps a by-product of the exercises proposed would be a contribution toward a clearer sense of the nation's goals.

Beyond the Traditional Boundaries

Earlier I referred to Harbison's approach to education sector planning. He maintains that it "goes far beyond the traditional boundaries of formal education; it encompasses training and resource development in other sectors such as agriculture, industry, health, nutrition and public service." ". . . it is not a relatively self-contained system. It has multiple intersections with almost every facet of national development."

"Intersections" need to be explored. Some of these are between different kinds and levels of educational institutions.

There has already been reference to the large numbers of adults served by the public schools. The community school movement with its dedication to lifelong learning opportunities continues to expand. Although the walls perhaps are not tumbling down, they are beginning to erode between schools and colleges.

The Commission on Educational Credit of ACE is working with industrial and business organizations and the trade unions to devise ways of translating education and training in those organizations into academic currency.

Willard Wirtz calls for bridges between what appear now to be the almost totally separate worlds of education and of work both to enrich the human experience and to increase the value of the economy's one "boundless resource" - the creativity of its people.

There will need to be recognition in these studies that nonformal learning and training is of equal importance to formal education and that distinctions between the two will be increasingly difficult to make. Informal education includes such learning as formal training on-the-job, apprenticeship, adult education (an archaic term), and, in the words of Harbison, "the entire range of learning processes and experience outside the regular graded school system." Obviously interaction will need to occur between and among people who may not have conversed before.

There is another related element which will require considerable attention. Over the next twenty-five years, it is likely that among the needs given high value in our society will be the development of energy sources, mass transportation, lowering the crime rates, improving and extending health services, dealing with air and water pollution, expanding employment opportunities, assuring an adequate food supply, and stabilizing the economy. Such needs have educational components which, if properly addressed, can in time reduce the dollar requirement for the problem area. Required will be a perceptive quality upon the part of those in education to see the opportunities that exist and the ability to develop working relationships with those organizations that have planning and operational responsibilities for these varied social functions.

What would come out of these studies?

1. A better and wider understanding of the rapidly changing characteristics of educational consumers and how their numbers sharply increase when their needs and interests are responded to. Current methods of reporting usually give only a fraction of numbers of people actually served by educational institutions.

2. An awareness of the diversity of institutions providing educational services. By and large in the past college and university education has behaved as if it were the beginning and the end - a monopolistic, monolithic structure with power through its credentialing functions. A pyramidal form with the graduate school at the sharpened apex modifying and influencing all that is below it as the structure broadens to include larger and larger numbers toward the base. By implication those persons who have not reached the summit have been unsuccessful. A look at actuality today will show that the perceived monolith no longer has credence. In a 1970 paper on "The Learning Force," Stan Moses of the Educational Policy Center at Syracuse rejected the notion that American education was a three-layer hierarchy running from primary school through graduate school. This, he said, represented the "core" but overlooked a "periphery" in which over 60 million adults pursued learning activities very important to their lives. His purpose was to challenge the monopoly which the educational establishment has over public policy and public resources.

3. A statement of goals and perspectives. Where do we look for this statement? I have suggested we might start with a review of goals enunciated in former years. In much of the legislation authorizing such institutions as community colleges there is language which stipulates goals and purposes. Willard Wirtz elicited favorable reviews from his reference to the development of the "boundless resource" as a goal. There is not nearly as much discussion about goals today as there is about means. Resources appear to be shrinking in relation to accelerating wants and the erosion of inflation. Voices are heard suggesting that we over-extended our commitments to medicaid, unemployment benefits, veterans benefits, welfare payments and education. Where should we look for an enunciation of goals? Is it fair to say that some hope that a great national leader on the traditional white horse will summon us in clarion calls to answer to a cause, a voice to unify us in common allegiances? There is some evidence that we have come to expect that. Decisions

of significance appear to be moving out of local areas. Television concentrates our attention in the national news on the President's office and on decisions made in Washington. To those centers of power our frustrations are expressed either in fact or by thought; and from those centers, we expectantly await the "word."

I propose new initiatives at local, institutional, regional, and state levels to work out our educational goals and perspectives. Perhaps the very process of bringing together the diversified citizenry to examine the "good" life as the context within which education serves its implementing purposes will be of equal importance to the conclusions reached. Theodore Wertime recently charged that a "malaise" that destroyed Rome and now threatens the United States derives from the ever greater administrative complexity of urban society. He asks whether civilized states could have been organized differently than they were.

> "Could they somehow have achieved an ecumenical and dynamic existence without the centralized establishments of wealth, power and written learning? . . .Must institutions of power inevitably become concentrated, ossified and, in Toynbee's words, grotesque?"[3]

4. A proposed policy framework to encourage desirable diversity and institutional initiatives and adaptability. Educational needs are manifold and they keep changing. Even at their best, institutions tend to become ponderous in their ability to act, but conditions can be designed to facilitate initiatives, to maintain agility. At the present there are fears upon the part of some state-level policymakers in giving institutions "their head," that institutional ambitions will get out of hand. Although those possibilities are acknowledged, the greater threat today is suffocation of creativity and thrust under multiplying layers of administrative hierarchy between the scene of action and the focus of the decision that triggers institutional behavior. Furthermore, in our search for answers to coordination and a basis for resource allocation we must have often developed categories and classifications into which institutional behavior

[3]Theodore A. Wertime, "The Aging of America," The Washington Post, January 1, 1976, Section A, p. 15.

must be pressed, trimmed, and pounded for satisfactory fit. An example is heavy reliance upon the academic credit system. Tremendously diverse institutions of "higher" education struggle to develop a "common market" of credit. If they are successful, state legislative bodies will be provided a structure for looking at higher education (as well as the data to fill in that structure) in ways that can seriously reduce the diversity of the enterprise as well as the opportunity for survival of those institutions who would march to a different drum.

The future is full of unknowns. Many of the old rules for making projections and for planning seem no longer to apply. The voice of the authority in a given field is heard with skepticism, in fact the voice often speaks with equivocation. A variable like a doubling or tripling of oil prices can have the well-known domino effect on our institutions. Nevertheless, we must plan. The institution that can deal with the uncertainties before us is the one that has a "sensing" capacity, a system of intelligence that detects significant changes in the environment and analyzes these for their meaning to the institution. And along with that capacity is another one equally essential, to be able to adapt, to initiate change in the institution, to be free to act.

5. Alternative ways of demonstrating accountability. Rather than being defensive in the face of pressures for accountability, we should take the offense in devising accountability measures that free the institution for its most effective performance. These would surely include the assurance that each institution have a set of objectives which serve two purposes: before the fact, they provide the basis for resource allocation; after the fact, they provide the basis for evaluation. The need for measures of performance in terms of institutional objectives has never been more apparent. "Value added" is a concept of promise whose development is still before us.

How, then, is accountability demonstrated? One approach is through the educational audit which is transmitted to the institution's board of trustees. The audit is based upon the notion that the most significant output of an educational institution is the skills, knowledges, appreciations and attitudes learned by students. These are described by instructors in statements of measurable and currently unmeasurable objectives. The auditor's examination provides him with a

basis to certify whether the reported achievements of the college are accurate. The audit report is for the purpose of improving institutional accountability.

Other measures include follow-up studies of students in relation to their "intents" or objectives.

Those of us who have lived for some years in the educational fields are convinced that the institutions with which we work can make a manifest difference in the lives of individuals and the communities in which they live. However, the task of discovering and making use of the various ways in which that difference can be recognized has not been completed.

6. Encouragement of voluntary coordination among institutions with common interests. I fear that mandated institutional missions often result in a kind of grudging compliance. There may be a consequent absence of alertness to environmental changes and new opportunities for service. Is it not possible that the same bodies that mandate mission, role and scope could devise incentives to attract institutions to areas of educational need appropriate to their objectives? And further, would it not be possible also to establish a system to reward voluntary efforts toward coordination and cooperation? What is needed is a process by which institutions will acknowledge common interests and seek an approach to a given need which will best meet that need and economize upon the resources available. The network of relationships may very well include institutions beyond the conventional educational family, for example, departments of recreation and parks, public libraries, city and state planning authorities, etc. Broad areas of institutional mission will need to be stipulated at state levels, but precise and specific assignments and proscriptions will become more impractical as life and learning are perceived as one stream. Implementing measures, including funding, are needed to encourage continuous assessment of educational needs, cooperative planning, and institutional initiatives toward cooperation in providing services.

Reprise

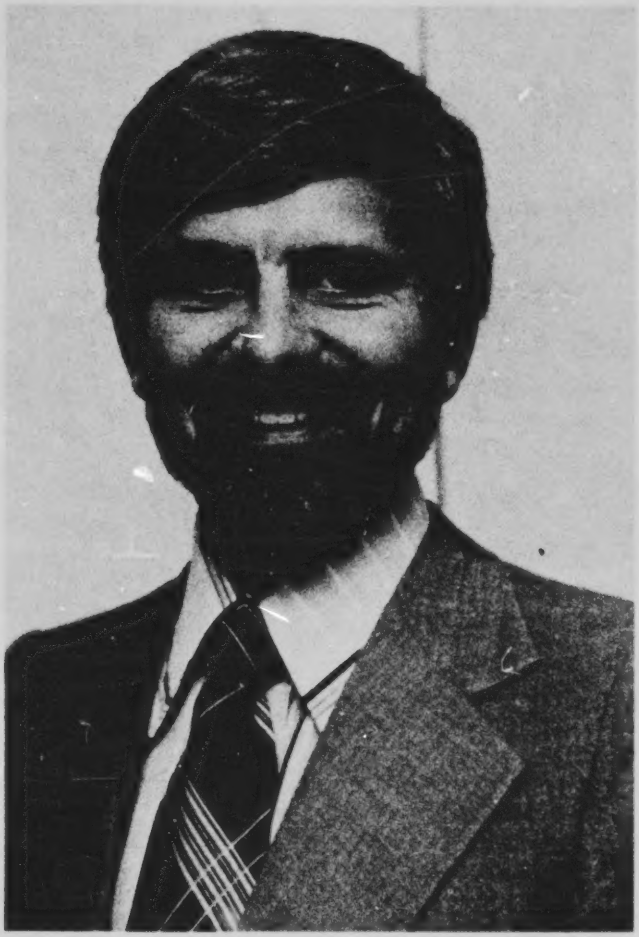
Throughout this presentation a theme has been running. I hope you have heard it. Change is occurring in American education. Change which is wholesome and promising. Inter-

est in educational opportunities and services continues to expand in impressive proportions. Some may quarrel with the kind of learning sought, judging it to be of little worth. Others will note the tendency of successful learning experiences to lead toward other unknowns, to be probed and at ascending levels of complexity and challenge.

This new spirit of learning is requiring new descriptors, a new terminology, an adaptive structure. Indeed, a significant contributing factor to the trauma our institutions experience in the face of financial constraints may be the limited moves to date to shape the structures to the new population. How these developments are perceived makes all the difference in the world to the morale of those who have the stewardship of education and to those who use it and support it.

What do we make of it? Students who are older, combining work and study, interested in a million different things, "dropping in" as family and other obligations permit, resorting to the college as to the library as curiosity provokes and interest motivates. What do we make of it? How do we see what is happening?

It is one man's view that America has unusual opportunities to build upon. Here there is no separate, self-contained enclave of education detached from the communities' life and problems - the kind of enclave which has brought violent revolution to societies less adaptable. Here is an educational enterprise more and more interfused with life's other meaningful activities. Here is the finest resource conceivable as America learns how to live in its third century.



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INNOVATIONS IN HUMANISTIC EDUCATION

by

Terry O'Banion

"Innovation" and "humanistic" were "hot" words in the 1960's. The climate of the '60's supported experiments with new approaches and especially approaches that were designed to respond to human needs in a humane way. Students demanded an education that was, in their words, "meaningful and relevant." Educators, responding to the moods and demands of the time innovated--tried new approaches, new designs--and even examined new value frameworks for education.

Humanistic Education provided one such value framework for the exploration of a rich variety of educational activities. Always present as an alternative in the thousands of years of educational practice, Humanistic Education flowers from time to time as an exciting viewpoint--often accompanied by conflict and controversy. In this century Progressive Education and General Education are forms of Humanistic Education that emerged briefly, had considerable impact, but faded from center stage when new approaches came along or when social upheavals such as Sputnik stimulated new directions in American education.

In the '60's Humanistic Education emerged again, this time actually called Humanistic Education, an unfortunate designation because it immediately challenged and accused established education as nonhumanistic or inhumane. The rebirth of Humanistic Education came about in part because of new developments in psychology. Humanistic Psychology or Third Force Psychology developed in the 1950's and emerged in the '60's as a radical departure in psychology suggesting that human beings were good--not evil, were full of unrealized potential, could be self-directing, were trustworthy, and were educable beyond our wildest imaginations of what heretofore had been thought regarding the educability of human beings.

Humanistic Education became popular and commonplace. It was used as a frame of reference by a variety of groups. The AFL-CIO negotiated with management for a

"humanistic work environment." Registrars talked of humanizing registration. Presidents suggested that a community college ought to model a humanistic community for students and citizens.

The impact of Humanistic Education is still evident in educational practices today, particularly in community colleges. There are fewer rules and regulations in community college catalogs. Non-punitive grading systems became popular in the early 1970's and still hold out in some colleges. Encounter groups were offered to students and faculty alike and in many instances were accepted into the curriculum and offered for academic credit. Services were extended to groups of students who had not benefited from the community college, such as the aged, the handicapped, and the mentally retarded. Learning opportunities became individualized and new machinery and formats for presenting small units of learning became the most popular implementation of humanistic education in the '60's and '70's. More recently there are humane attempts to match students' styles of learning with the styles of teaching available in the institution. In these ways Humanistic Education continues to have impact on educational practices in the mid '70's as it is likely to have in the late '70's and '80's and perhaps beyond. Though the term is no longer in vogue, the philosophy it represents is still very much alive. There are exciting innovations--a term also no longer in vogue--that validate the impact of this alternative educational viewpoint.

Innovations are seldom if ever new inventions. They emerge out of the collective exploration and experimentation of creative staff members and they emerge over a considerable period of time. Three innovations to be described in this paper have historical roots which deny any suggestion that they are new or different. What is new, however,is that they have emerged in the last decade as more important and in different forms, and they are receiving more national attention in these forms than they have in the past. Three innovations in Humanistic Education that have captured the imagination of staff members in community colleges include: 1) an alternative to organization by discipline, 2) Human Development Education, and 3) staff development.

An Alternative To Organization By Discipline

Almost all institutions of higher education are organized

around the traditional disciplines. In the typical university there is a College of Commerce, a College of Engineering, a College of Fine Arts, etc. In the typical community college there is a Division of Communications, a Division of Life Sciences, a Division of Social Sciences, etc. In each division there is also a series of departments representing the further breakdown of discipline units. In one Canadian community college there are 54 discipline units representing faculty members' wishes to be identified specifically by discipline areas to which they feel strong allegiance.

Organization by discipline is a universal model that has been implemented fully and unquestionably in the community college. Such organizational structure may not always be appropriate to the goals and purposes of the community college. In a discipline oriented organizational structure faculty members are often more oriented to the discipline than to teaching or the institution. The demands or "standards" of a discipline offer convenient barriers for faculty members who do not wish to experiment with new approaches required for the challenging tasks of educating community college students. There is also the problem of a hierarchy of status in terms of who is more knowledgeable in the discipline (who has the most publications) or who has the highest degree in the discipline, rather than who is the best teacher and who contributes more to the institution's purposes and goals.

Some community colleges--to counteract the negative forces that can accompany a discipline organization, and to experiment with new organizational structures more appropriate to community colleges and the mission of the community college--have developed organizations that do not rely on discipline affiliation. Instead, groups of faculty members representing a variety of disciplines are organized into units to provide instruction and to participate in the on-going affairs of the institution.

One approach--though still discipline oriented in the broadest sense--is found at the College of DuPage in Illinois and Indian Valley College in California. These two institutions, as well as several others, are organized in broad based clusters or houses that have been organized primarily to assist students in identifying with a broad focus such as the social sciences or scientific inquiry. It is hoped that such organization will encourage a greater sense of identity among students

and among faculty members and that there will be more opportunity for interdisciplinary approaches to knowledge in such a setting. At Indian Valley College there is a purposeful approach to increasing the amount of interpersonal relationships among the staff. Retreats and special meetings are held to give attention to this purpose.

An approach that completely destructs the discipline organizational structure is found at Moraine Valley Community College and Oakton Community College--both in Illinois--and Santa Fe Community College in Florida. In these colleges the focus is on multidisciplinary groups bound together by attention to interpersonal relationships and a sense of community. At Moraine Valley groups of faculty members representing a variety of disciplines are intermixed in crossroads communities with administrators and students. In these communities there are no private offices; the open space is designed to facilitate communication. Members are encouraged to focus on problems of the college without specific reference to their discipline affiliation.

At Santa Fe Community College units of 16 or so faculty members, representing most of the disciplines in the institution, and a counselor work in clearly identified physical arrangements that encourage communication and the sharing of ideas. Faculty members in these mini-units are encouraged to develop a special climate and some groups have designed their office areas to represent particular interests and creativity of the group. The units meet periodically just as if they were a department or division to consider institutional problems and processes and to make their contributions through a chairperson. When it is necessary to meet as a discipline group--for example, to consider the adoption of a new text in communications--the groups do meet on a college-wide basis. These meetings are infrequent, however, and only for the purposes of agreeing on educational problems that require decisions by representatives of a specific discipline.

At Oakton Community College groups of 25 faculty members are organized into communities which include a human development specialist whose purpose is to facilitate a sense of community in the group. These groups form the major structure of the college and most educational decisions pertaining to instruction and curriculum emerge from these groups.

The examples are attempts to organize "caring communities" in the community college–structures that encourage a sense of community based on interpersonal relationships. Such communities, it is hypothesized, provide support and encouragement, challenge and confrontation, trust and openness, for the members. In addition, it is felt that in this kind of community faculty members are more likely to innovate and experiment with new approaches since there is a richer input from various members of the institution and fewer limits of discipline traditions. Such communities are designed as places to practice new ideas and to try on new styles. When a special facilitator is present, such as is the case at Oakton, such practices are encouraged more directly.

Although the college is not organized along the lines noted above, the climate of a caring community has been described by the faculty at Eastfield College of the Dallas County Community College District in the college's Statement on a Person-Centered Climate. The College is dedicated to the following characteristics:

1) An atmosphere is sought in which all persons have maximum opportunity for personal growth and self-fulfillment.

2) Efforts are made to develop an open climate on campus in which all persons can freely express their concerns and opinions.

3) There is a desire to place human concerns and need above those of tradition and convenience.

4) An effort is made to encourage all individuals to be supportive and thoughtful in personal relationships.

5) There is a desire to develop a relaxed and warm friendly atmosphere on campus.

The kind of person-centered climate described at Eastfield represents the ideals of a "caring community." Such ideals are more likely to be met when organizational structures are designed to encourage such ideals. (For more detailed discussion see Organizational Breakthrough in the Community College. ERIC Topical Paper no. 47 by Barry Heermann.)

Human Development Education

Human Development Education is one of the more creative facets of the Humanistic Education movement. Human Development Education "HDE" grew out of the General Education movement of the 1940's and 1950's and was to have been the integrative force that would have made General Education work. Called life adjustment then, courses in college adjustment, personal living, and introduction to personal psychology were offered in almost all colleges and universities across the U.S. The life adjustment courses in this period, however, failed, because there was no adequate psychology, no methodology, and no qualified instructors. It was a naive attempt to focus on personal development at a time when educators tended to oversimplify personal development. Such courses were most often limited to basic didactic instruction in study skills, social regulations, and a perspective that it was easy to help students adjust to a social order in which values were clear and accepted by the majority.

The life adjustment focus was fortunately dismantled with the launching of Sputnik and a return to science and the basics in education. Had the life adjustment phase persisted it may have undermined much of the current advances that have emerged out of a more lively and creative Humanistic Education that was built on stronger foundations in the '60's. In the '60's the life adjustment curriculum was reborn as Human Development Education with a much sounder base because Humanistic Psychology provided a direction, the group encounter movement provided a teaching methodology, and creative and potent educational mavericks have rooted out their own education to become highly qualified facilitators for this new form of old education.

The student revolution also hurried the emergence of Human Development Education. Students demanded attention to their personal lives from educators and the free university movement was the spawning ground for a great variety of alternative courses--courses that provided opportunity for personal development and exploration.

Basically, Human Development Education is a course or a series of courses designed to help students explore the eternal and perplexing questions Who am I? Where am I

going? and What difference does it make? One prototype course developed at Santa Fe Community College in Florida is described as follows:

> BE-100 is a course in introspection; the experience of the student is the subject matter. It provides each student with an opportunity to examine his values, attitudes, beliefs, and abilities and how these and other factors affect the quality of his relationships with others. In addition, he examines the social milieu--challenges and problems of society--as it relates to his development. Finally the course provides each student with an opportunity to broaden and deepen a developing philosophy of life.

At the present time hundreds of community colleges offer a variety of experiences in Human Development Education.. These range from very "straight" courses in career exploration and study skills to more exotic courses in "love" and explorations of varieties of human sexuality. Some colleges offer one or two basic courses in self-development; others offer as many as 20 or 30 different experiences in Human Development Education focusing on special groups and special needs arranged in a variety of formats.

In a dissertation at the University of Illinois, Terry Ludwig studied human development courses offered by 100 community colleges and discovered that in almost all of them academic credit was provided, the focus of the course was on the experience of the student, and almost all of them were taught by small group methods. Such courses were unknown in the curriculum 15 years ago and offered only for noncredit some 7-8 years ago. They are now offered in community colleges for academic credit and are often included as electives in transfer work to universities.

More and more such courses are included as parts of courses in communications, speech, humanities, and the social sciences. In some community colleges an entire division called the Human Development Division, for example at El Centro College in Dallas, or the Affective Education Division at Jamestown Community College in New York has been organized to offer this form of instruction to students.

Although there are some recent signs that the rapid development of Human Development Education in the

early '70's may be beginning to slow--and in some cases actually dismantled--it is, nevertheless, one of the more creative aspects of Humanistic Education in the last decade. Human Development Education represents the curricularization of affective education and that is quite an innovation--the granting of academic credit for what many students feel is their most important college experience.

Staff Development

During the 1960's the growth of community colleges was unprecedented in the history of educational development in the U.S. In the ten year period 1960-70 the number of two year colleges increased by 61%, the number of students increased by 271%, and the number of staff increased by 327%. Because of this growth, the priority of resources in community colleges focused on growth. Increasing numbers of students meant that new programs had to be developed and new facilities had to be located and constructed. The priority was on the increasing number of students, the diversity of programs, and the expansion of facilities.

Only in the middle '70's did the community college come to a resting place where it could review what happened during the last decade and a half. In that review it has become increasingly clear that a new priority has emerged, a priority on persons, a priority on the people who staff the people's college. Staff development has emerged in the last decade as a new program of high priority designed to respond to the professional and personal needs of the staff of community colleges.

The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges held its second national assembly on the topic of staff development in 1973. Members of the national assembly noted the importance of staff development.

> The staff of a college is its single greatest resource. In economic terms, the staff is the college's most significant and largest capital investment. In these terms alone, we affirm that it is only good sense that the investment be allowed to appreciate in value and not be allowed to wear itself out or slide into obsolescence by inattention or neglect. But in a more crucial sense

the college's staff is the expression of its purposes, the collective manager of its missions. As the college's purposes change and adapt to the social needs of its community, its staff deserves--must have--opportunities to adapt and change too.

Inservice training has always been a part of activities in educational institutions, but in the past the concept has been quite limited. Most colleges provide a two-day orientation session for staff each year, but such experiences are seldom rated highly by teachers who are forced to sit through the sessions. One faculty member asked to evaluate the most important thing that occurred to her during the two-day orientation session indicated on her evaluation form that she had completed knitting a left sock.

Recognizing the need to respond to more basic needs that faculty have such as improving instructional approaches, designing new curricula, and learning better how to relate to students, staff development has emerged in the last ten years as one of the most important priorities in community colleges. Good staff development is a humane response to human needs and is an attempt to provide Humanistic Education for staff.

The state of Florida is an outstanding example of commitment to staff development. By action of the Florida Legislature special funds are allocated to community colleges each year for staff development programs. Each college has a staff development officer and usually a staff development committee that attempts to design programs to meet the needs of staff members as well as to meet the priorities of the institution. Activities are available for full and part-time faculty, classified staff, and administrators. Staff development activities include retreats for groups of faculty or for the total faculty, grants to encourage staff members to develop innovative approaches to improving instruction, personal development plans, and a variety of in-house workshops and seminars often provided by an in-house staff of consultants.

In the League for Innovation, a national consortium of 48 community colleges in eleven states, staff development is one of the highest priorities. Member colleges in the League have developed a number of creative and innovative ap-

proaches to staff development and the League itself acts as a staff development program for member colleges.

Examples of staff development programs in League colleges include a series of self-instructional modules for part-time staff at the Maricopa County Community College District. Modules focus on such items as the nature of the community college and the community college student, approaches and techniques of teaching, career development, and the nature of the community served by the college. At Eastfield College in Dallas there is a staff development program for members of the classified staff. Classified staff members have opportunities to participate in workshops and seminars and to participate in activities that are available to professional staff members in the college. Also in the Dallas district top administrators intern in new positions in various units of the district colleges and also use programmed materials on community college administration developed by the district to further their learning of administration and the community college. In the Foothill-De Anza Community College District there is a focus on interpersonal relationships to improve communication among administrative staff and a comprehensive program for updating counselor skills in the new counseling approaches.

In these colleges staff development is certainly an innovation compared to what was available ten years ago. As these programs focus on the continuing development of staff members both professionally and personally staff development is a reflection of the best in Humanistic Education.

These three innovations in Humanistic Education serve to illustrate that Humanistic Education is simply good education--education that attempts to bring some balance to our past over-emphasis on rational and cognitive processes.

These three innovations provide examples of how Humanistic Education has had influence on the organization of an institution, how it has helped contribute to the development of a new curricula area and improved instructional opportunities for students, and how it has had direct impact on staff members themselves in terms of providing opportunities for their continuing professional and personal development. As these three examples illustrate, Humanistic Education underscores the value of human feelings and emotions in the education of human beings and aims toward

the development of students and staff who are both warm-hearted and hard-headed--both tough and tender--both knowing and caring. It is this kind of balance that is the only proper purpose of education. Humanistic Education attempts to right that balance

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REGIONALISM IN POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION: SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR

by

S. V. Martorana

As a member of the planning council for the International Institute on the Community College, I very recently was asked to react to the proposed theme for the 7th Institute scheduled for this June. It is "College Perspective '76 - A Productive Past: A Perplexing Present: Where Do We Go From Here?" The question that came immediately to mind, and the reason for my mentioning it as an introduction to this presentation, is: Who is included in the "we"? Are only community colleges alone to be viewed as determining the path of the future for these institutions, or, alternatively, must the concept of the "we", who will mold a future for these and other types of postsecondary educational institutions, be defined to include other organizations and agencies interested and involved in this level of education as well?

This is a question needing serious attention and deliberation as to how best to answer, for upon the answer rests a series of consequent possibilities highly important to the future direction not only of community colleges but of all postsecondary education. That the question is not now getting that serious attention is evident from a number of observations. In the first place, most of the subjects taken up at meetings of professionals in community college work reflect an assumption that they are in control of the future of their institutions and, therefore, of the future of the sector of American education they represent. For many years I have chosen to call "community college education," a broad part of the total enterprise of education in this country as opposed to simply community and junior colleges as particular types of institutions. I wish to return to the importance of this distinction in a moment, but to stay with the point now being stressed, an assumption that those who direct the destinies of community and junior colleges also control the destiny of community college education suggests that the "we" in the question under examination can be viewed to include only community and junior colleges. A conclusion that this could be a tenable position for community colleges to take, of course, is safe only if the assumption basic to it is sound.

But other observations suggest that even the community and junior college leadership and forward thinkers are not united in such a view. Dr. Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., President of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges and a person of long standing national recognition for leadership in the field, started over two years ago to make public pronouncements that suggest an awareness that community and junior colleges do not in fact control their own destinies. I should emphasize that this conclusion and answer to the question of who is the "we", to determine where we go from here, is only implicit in Dr. Gleazer's statements of recent years; the points I just made are not explicity brought out in his speeches or writings. This you must realize and note well, for I may be drawing from his statements, inferences and extensions of meaning that he, himself, would prefer not to make. Nonetheless, I believe they are valid and very much to the point of the question at hand. Consider, for example, these quotations from Gleazer's expressions of the past few years:

> . . . times are changing. Community colleges throughout the country now are becoming more and more community based. This means that they are placing more emphasis on relationships with other community-based organizations than upon their relationships with the community of higher education.

And later in the same speech he said:

> "As I look ahead, I see community colleges becoming community-based, performance-based institutions. We have made this goal the stated mission of our Association. This means relating in a very significant way to other community-based organizations.[1]"

These stated convictions have remained constant, for essentially the same propositions were advanced early this year when Dr. Gleazer addressed the National Assembly of the National Center for Higher Education Management Information Systems. Gleazer, quite clearly, sees a new leadership role for the community and junior colleges in the new concerns for community-centered postsecondary education.[2]

These statements commit community and junior colleges to very close ties with all sorts of other interests

actively involved with postsecondary education in their localities. If this is to be, one must ask who will determine the terms and conditions of that involvement; who will decide where and how we go from here?

As I said, Gleazer's statements suggest strongly a growing indication by him, as the principal spokesman for community and junior colleges, that community colleges do not control their own destinies. Although not specified and certainly not emphasized, this conclusion is implicit in his statements. To my knowledge, no others have made their position clear on who controls the destiny of community and junior colleges.

Three possible positions seem to have some basis for support on the question posed. The first is that the community and junior colleges can, in fact, not only control their own destinies but that of the other interests engaged in community college education. (This would be a position expected of a national spokesman for an associated network of institutions of this type). A second position could be that the other interests will dominate the determination of the future of community college education and, therefore, community and junior colleges must yield to a future not of their own choosing. And, a third position could assert that other interests in the community and junior college education, as institutions, will engage jointly in the determination of the future of this level of education. The result will be a compromise somewhat acceptable mutually to all and, by the same token, somewhat unacceptable to all, as well.

This paper presents some empirical evidence that speaks to this broad question of the make up of the "we" in the earlier question of where do "we" go from here. In so doing, it also speaks to a tentative conclusion as to which of the three possible roles will likely prevail in determining the future of community and junior college education.

Before moving into a report of the empirical information that I believe will interest you on these questions, this discussion should first give some attention to two other background observations. They are closely related to the main thrust of my presentation and to each other. First, a moment should be given to the importance of the distinction I have stressed in these introductory comments, that is, the distinction between community and junior colleges as

institutions and community college education as a broad sector of the total enterprise of education in America. Second, we should take a look at the current ambivalent pressures on postsecondary educational institutions with respect to interinstitutional cooperative action.

Community Colleges Distinguished From Community College Education

All of us know the fundamental purposes in educational service which give justification to the existence of community and junior colleges: they are to popularize, democratize, and equalize opportunity for education beyond the high school level; to provide a comprehensive educational program to meet the wide spectrum of educational needs and interests of a non-selected student body; to assist each student to assess accurately and realistically his abilities, interests, and motivation level and to relate these effectively to the educational choices he faces; to individualize and personalize the instructional and counseling services provided; and, beyond all these purposes that are directed to students collectively and individually, to improve the general condition and quality of life of the community with which the college is identified. These are broad and noble educational goals; they have been iterated and reiterated in the scholarly and popular proclamations of the community and junior college movement from the earliest writings by such founding fathers of the movement as Leonard V. Koos[3] and Walter Crosby Eells[4], to the most recent ones like those of Leland L. Medsker[5] and Arthur M. Cohen.[6]

The fact of the matter, however, is that these noble educational goals, comprehensively or in part, are accepted and sought by a widening array of post high school educational institutions. Community and junior colleges do not hold exclusive claim to them. This reality is, no doubt, a credit to the success of the community and junior college movement; action of other established institutions and the emergence of new ones which have adopted the ideals and goals of the community and junior colleges, is a credit to these institutions and a testimony of the validity of the visions held for the movement by its early leadership. But the reality is also a confusing element; it forces the recognition that community college education, that is, the pursuit of goals set for this kind of education in America, is broader than the collective number of community and junior colleges alone.

Look at all of the different types of postsecondary educational institutions operating today and expressedly claiming to strive for all or some of the classical community educational goals! The regional state colleges and universities increasingly claim to be open access institutions and to offer comprehensive educational services to their constituencies, including in recent years, the larger numbers programs of less than four years of college study which lead to associate degrees.[7] Many land grant colleges and state universities play a part in this endeavor by maintaining branch campuses offering lower-division programs. In some states, area vocational schools are authorized to grant associate degrees; this is also true in some states for certain approved programs offered by proprietary trade, technical, and business schools and colleges.[8] And some of the institutions, most recently appearing on the educational scene in this country as non-traditional institutions, offer programs leading to the associate degree as well as the baccalaureate; Empire State College in New York State, a public institution, and Washington International College, a private, independent one, are two examples. Except for Empire State College, which has no campus, all of these types of institutions and the specific cases cited claim a close identity with the localities with which they are identified and seek to enhance their communities.

These examples show how tangled is the web of participating institutions in what can be called community college education. The concept is clearly larger than any single classification of institutions, including the community college. This is not to say, however, that these other institutions are of greater moment in the provision of community college education than the community and junior colleges are; such a proposition could not be defended either on grounds of the degree of commitment to the goals and ideals of the community college movement, or in terms of the degree of successful accomplishment of these objectives. Community and junior colleges clearly have the strongest institutional commitment to the goals typically set for this level of education, and the students attracted to them demonstrate, both in number and in their characteristics, a greater accomplishment of the goals of community college education than can be claimed by any other classification of institutions. Several comparative studies can be cited to support these conclusions.[9] Despite their validity, however, neither can it be said that the community and junior colleges

are the only institutions engaged in community college education in the land. A widening number of different types of institutions and a lengthening list of individual institutions are claiming some identification with and recognition in community college education.

Conflicting Pressures for Competition and for Interinstitutional Cooperation

Under these circumstances, what is to be expected in the near future? Is the appearance of so many players in the field of community college education to herald the beginning of a grand competition among them from which only certain ones will survive? Or is it to mark the start of an era of orchestrated interinstitutional cooperation in planning, programming, and sharing resources never before achieved? The answers to these questions are yet to be determined, for the evidence is clear today that pressures are pushing institutions involved in community college education in both of these two possible directions of development.

Pressures for Competition

Looking at the over-all current setting of postsecondary education, one can see at least six factors contributing to a general pressure on institutions engaged in community college education to compete rather than to cooperate with each other. First, there is the classical, traditional view among collegiate institutions that each is an autonomous entity, free to set its own goals and to pursue them in ways it sees best. While this notion is perhaps identified strongest with baccalaureate and higher degree granting colleges and universities, it is not irrelevant to the community and junior colleges. In the case of these institutions, the concept is closely related to their close hold to local control and a full responsiveness to the needs of local communities. This is a valuable and valid concept – one to which I, myself, as an advocate of the community college have steadfastly held. As any member of the National Council of State Directors of Community and Junior Colleges will attest, however, it represents a value which often forces the adoption of institutional positions inimitable to regional or statewide planning and coordination and to interinstitutional cooperative action.

A second source of pressure toward competition again results from the expression of an historical value in this

country. The essence of the historical value is that the policies to guide educational institutions should be set by responsible bodies which represent the general public or constituencies of the colleges but which are free from other political controls. Once more we should emphasize the importance of this value to the strength of the educational enterprise in America. But, nonetheless, the principle followed does have the effect of encouraging individual collegiate institutions to pursue independent rather than collective and cooperative courses of action.

Still a third force stimulating competition among institutions is of historical making. This is the well established practice in all states and on the part of the federal government of recognizing the worth of both publicly and privately controlled colleges. The facts cannot be denied that this recognition contributes to a more diversified complex of postsecondary educational institutions which leads to a better service of the society. Neither can it be argued, however, that the privately and publicly controlled institutions view each other strongly as cooperating, complementary parts of a coherent and cohesive educational service. While some evidence of such a view comes forward from time-to-time, as in the case of the survey of cooperative utilization of private junior college resources made by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges,[10] evidence of a competitive spirit is easier to find. The recent pronouncement of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities about the use of public funds for private colleges is a vivid example.[11]

The impact of policy proclamations of influential national study groups is another factor generating a spirit of competition among institutions involved in community college education. Perhaps the best illustration of this is found in the two reports produced by the group chaired by Frank Newman.[12] They bore particularly upon the community college interests because so much of their attention centered on the questions of student access to postsecondary education and the means whereby college programs and methods of instruction could be made more relevant to student needs. The Second Report, significantly subtitled, "National Policy and Higher Education," decries coordinated planning as encouraging "rationalization" rather than healthy competition and calls for a federal role of stimulating competition among different types of postsecondary institutions.[13]

Because of such policy recommendations as well as for other reasons, the federal government and many states have moved rapidly toward programs of financial aid paid directly to students, and this is another factor favoring competition. The federal programs of basic educational opportunity and supplementary educational opportunity grants established in the Higher Education Amendments of 1972 are the best examples. Another provision of that Act, however, should be noted; it is the one intended to give several states incentives to establish or strengthen their own student financial aid programs. The cumulative results of these programs are massive annual payments to students to help them pursue their college careers. The possible impact of this movement toward implementing a "market model" in financing post-secondary education on the community colleges has been treated elsewhere;[14] it need not be developed further here. The indications are strong, however, that institutions of the community college type will need to be especially competitive in a "market model" fiscal arrangement to offset advantages held by other types of institutions.

A sixth and final force generating pressures for competition is the general realization that the population pool from which college students will be drawn in the foreseeable future will need to be adults other than the 18 to 21 year olds just out of high school. Collegiate institutions of all kinds are discovering the adult learner who is interested usually in college study on a part-time rather than a full-time basis. At the present time there appears no rational plan at hand to divide the educational labor that colleges might perform to meet the needs of the adult learner; in the absence of such a design, open competition for these students becomes the only solution.

Pressures for Cooperation

Despite the pressures for competition among collegiate institutions such as those described above, one cannot conclude now that an open competitive or "market model" will be the wave of the future. Judgment has to be reserved because there are notable pressures for interinstitutional cooperation which seem to serve to counteract those pushing the colleges to compete. For the purpose of this presentation, I have chosen six to develop briefly. The first is a look at the other face of the coin relevant to the last pressure cited con-

tributing to competition; when colleges see that the prospects of continued enrollment growth are limited, and that open competition may place a serious risk on their survival, they see the advantages of a common plan to divide the limited market. Spurred by the awareness that the acquisition of an assigned role and scope of function in a general plan of post-secondary education will give greater assurance of continued operations, more institutions are expressing support for cooperative planning and action that was true during the expansionist days of the 60s. Increasingly, collegiate institutional behavior shows their belief that if "they make the team" they will be able to play -- with a stronger sense of confidence for the general strength and effectiveness of the institution. Thus, we may well see during the next decade a resurgence of what in the 50s and 60s were called "role and scope" statewide studies, stimulated for different reasons but working toward the same conclusions, the elimination or at least reduction of interinstitutional fear, confusion, rivalry, and a consequent wasteful open competition.

A second factor pushing collegiate institutions toward a greater level of interinstitutional cooperation is an extension of the first; it is the growing awareness of these institutions of the need to share limited and expensive resources in order to survive. I developed this proposition at length in a paper presented to a conference on statewide planning sponsored by the Education Commission of the States almost a year ago.[15] The general theme of the paper was that each of the major sectors of postsecondary education in this country possesses significant amounts of limited and valuable resources that are needed to carry on the total enterprise. These resources are both personal, as represented by faculty and professional staffs, and material, as evidenced by buildings, land, library holdings, and the like. As the diminishing capacity of the individual sectors of postsecondary education to acquire the resources they need becomes more generally understood, the historical tendency of each to get what it needs independently from what others have will likely wane. Sharing available resources becomes then, both a means to adjust to a new era of stabilizing enrollments and one to conserve existing scarce and expensive personal and material resources.

In all reality, one must note that the growing indication of collegiate institutions to act collectively in their own behalf does not flow entirely from altruistic or public spirited

motives. Much of it, as has been already suggested, is prompted by concerns for survival and the growing understanding that the actual presence or appearance of "wasteful duplication" between and among institutions of postsecondary education is a serious policital liability. This political sensitivity is another factor moving colleges toward stronger cooperative actions. A dramatic illustration of this is evident in Pennsylvania right now in the case of the strong initiative expressed by the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities to assume responsibility for a comprehensive study of all programs leading to academic degrees, from the associate to the doctoral levels. For the first time in the history of the state all kinds of collegiate institutions offering degrees -- proprietary schools, community and junior colleges, and four year colleges and universities, whether publicly or privately controlled -- are taking an in-depth and detailed look at what they are offering in their academic programs. The genesis of the project lay in the questioning behavior of the state legislature in a resolution by the State Board of Education calling for such a study; faced with that challenge the Association moved to plan the study and to acquire funds to get it done. The Association's member colleges were motivated to do so perhaps by the strong awareness of their political vulnerability before their supporting constituencies if they failed to act affirmatively on the matter than for any other reason.

A fourth pressure on colleges to establish stronger cooperative practices is also illustrated by the Pennsylvania experience; it is the strengthening insistence of policy makers and supporters of postsecondary education for sharper and deeper indications of institutional accountability. While it is true that there is real concern about the impact demands for accountability on the institutions, it is also evident that one of the results of these demands is to promote joint actions in response. This is true with respect both to decisions made as to how to respond to the external demands for accountability and to ways that protest can be expressed when these demands appear to be causing negative impacts on the institutions.

Backed by the manifestation by legislatures, private supporters, and the general public of feeling that postsecondary educational institutions should be more accountable for performance of their services, responsible local, state, and federal agencies are showing strong aggressiveness in their

demands for information from these institutions. This represents another pressure against which the colleges are tending to respond by seeking to take a common stand. In this regard, community and junior colleges are more vulnerable than the other types of postsecondary educational institutions involved in this level of education because of the requirement in most states that local governmental jurisdictions, as well as state agencies, have a voice in community college operations. It is a price that community and junior colleges pay for their adherence to the principles of local control and full identification with the localities they serve; although generally considered to be a fair and essential price, it is, nonetheless, a demanding one. In such Eastern states as Maryland, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania for example, both civil local governmental units and community college boards of trustees who represent the general public of the community college service districts have some official realms of authority over these institutions because local governments raise a part of the costs. In the Southern, Midwestern, and Far Western regions of the country, the boards of trustees of community colleges are the only local body with official jurisdiction over the institutions operation. The point advanced here is that the responsible agencies at all levels are demanding institutions to be accountable, that they are doing so with an increasing display of aggressiveness, and that the community colleges are vulnerable to a larger span of this kind of surveillance than is applied to the other sectors of postsecondary education. It is no wonder, therefore, that countervailing developments emerge such as that expressed by the Council of Community College Presidents of Illinois, where the leadership is focusing steadily on the task of maintaining institutional initiative and integrity in statewide planning and coordination, and the similar agenda being followed by the Pennsylvania Commission of Community Colleges, again a voluntary association of the presidents of these institutions in that state.

Finally, to be noted as a sixth force for interinstitutional cooperation among institutions engaged in community college education, is the emergence of the so-called "1202 Commissions;" these are special statewide agencies created or designated in several states in response to the provisions of Sections 1202 and 1203 of the Higher Education Amendments of 1972. All but four of the states have moved to implement this legislation, thereby, indicating compliance with the stated intention that there would be involvement of

all sectors and interests in postsecondary education in comprehensive statewide planning and coordination to expand and improve opportunity for this level of education.[16] It should be of some interest, however, that in these actions relatively no attention was given to the requirement in the federal law that each 1202 Commission should also establish a special community college advisory council; a recent survey of the fifty states found that less than a half-dozen of the forty-seven states acting on the 1202 Commission legislation had established or designated the correlated community college advisory council.[17] In justice to the 1202 Commissions, they seem to merit recognition as forces for inter-institutional cooperation and in opposition to open competition among postsecondary educational institutions. This is true, if for no other reason than the fact that for the first time in the history of most states, they are convening all of the interests actively engaged in this level of education, including the proprietary trade, technical, and business schools and colleges. It is perhaps the work of the 1202 Commissions that is now beginning to take shape in state after state that will do most to assure cooperation rather than competition as the wave of the future. This work is concentrating on comprehensive planning, and on the identification of the appropriate scope and function of the several active parties in the field. This is consistent with the legislative mandate which stresses the task of developing maximum use of scarce and valuable resources while at the same time extending and expanding opportunity and access to postsecondary educational services to all citizens. Thus, the 1202 Commissions must be reckoned as potentially very positive forces for inter-institutional planning and cooperation. But a conclusion that this outlook will prevail is a precarious one because of the powerful forces for open competition that were described earlier.

Regionalism and Regionalization

Against this backdrop of the current setting for postsecondary education, it is easier to grasp more fully the possible significance of another new development in the field. It is the movement toward an organizational response to a state's needs for postsecondary educational services which I call regionalism, and to which I have been giving special study during the past two or three years. Only a preliminary report of this on-going study has been compiled; the findings it presents however, are quite provocative,

and the remainder of this paper will deal with them[18] and with the implications they hold for the community and junior colleges along with other institutions actively engaged in community college education. The preliminary report was compiled by W. Gary McGuire, a graduate assistant in the Center for the Study of Higher Education, and me.

For purposes of our study, we defined regionalism as that view of a geographic sub-section of a state (or of several adjoining states) which considers all (or a number) of post-secondary educational components collectively, and seeks to establish a coordinated relationship of their goals, programs, and/or resources. That is the idea, the concept; regionalization is then simply the acts or processes by which the concept is put into practice; the implementation of regionalism is regionalization. It is manifested, obviously, in some form of interinstitutional, cooperative arrangement.

For purposes of our study, however, we attached another criterion for inclusion of interinstitutional arrangements into the counts of practice we wanted to describe; this criterion was the regional arrangement to be one that was officially recognized by an authoritative agency in the state. This could be, naturally, the Governor or Legislature by executive action or statute, or a state-level coordinating or governing board responsible for postsecondary education in whole or in part in the state.

This matter of official recognition is important, for it is a way to separate the concept of regionalism as an aspect of statewide planning and coordination of postsecondary education from the more general phenomenon of consortia which are more typically ad hoc, voluntary, interinstitutional arrangements. These merit attention because: (1) they are in some sense forerunners of regionalism; (2) because they are in some cases coming into the process of recognized, official regionalism; and, (3) because they already provide some basis of experience from which officials considering regionalism can profit. Identification and preliminary examination of these consortia dates back nearly 20 years.[19] But in recent years, the person most directly following this development is Lewis D. Patterson, headquartered in the AAHE. For several years he has produced an annual count of formally organized consortiums. The 1975 count is 106. But, as he says, this is only a small glimpse of the interinstitutional connections emerging throughout the land:

> "Numbers at best only tell a part of the cooperative movement. In the past two years new areas are receiving increased attention such as among community colleges, in continuing education, in medical and health programs, in military programs, in theology and in the arts. Two trends to observe in the future will be: the movement to state regionalization where it becomes increasingly difficult to distinguish between voluntary and statutory systems; and a broadening of the base of participation to include the full range of the postsecondary community and related community/regional agencies in cooperative arrangements."[20]

In passing, one should note for the record, that the achievements of consortia, to date, are not very impressive. Franklin Patterson (no relation to Lew, I'm told) paints a dim view of their attainments as contrasted to their aspirations in a book-length treatment entitled Colleges in Consort: Institutional Cooperation through Consortia.[21]

But McGuire and I discovered much stronger interest and action in regionalism and regionalization than we expected to discover. Here, only a few highlights from the study can be reported, for space is limited.

Level of Interest and Activity

Some sixty percent (31 of 50) of the states are actively engaged in regionalism as an aspect of planning and coordinating postsecondary educational resources. Most of this activity is concentrated in the Middle Atlantic, Southeastern, and Midwestern regions of the nation. Some correlation seems evident that larger states, and those with more complex enterprises in postsecondary education, are more actively concerned with regionalism than those that encompass smaller geographic areas or have less diversity in postsecondary educational services within their boundaries. In several states, more than one officially recognized approach to regionalism is operative. In some, this is because of separate actions by different agencies, each operating within its own spheres of authority; and in others, the same agency is applying regionalism in different ways to different elements of the postsecondary educational enterprise for which they are responsible.

Altogether, the 45 regionalization patterns in 31

different states, with the number under study nearly one-half of the total in effect, support a clear conclusion that activity as well as interest in regionalism and regionalization will remain high for some time. This conclusion, furthermore, is reinforced by the statements advanced by the state officials surveyed to the effect that the pressures now operative to stimulate regionalism in their states will be at hand, at least for the foreseeable future.

Influencing Factors

Beyond the generally observed forces in the society and economy of the nation which create pressures on post-secondary education for a higher level of accountability to its constituencies, several factors seem to encourage regionalism when they exist in a state. A primary one is the leadership posture assumed and role played by state-level boards or commissions with official responsibility for the general surveillance of a state's postsecondary educational enterprise or for a major segment of that enterprise. Such agency leadership far outranked any other influencing factor in the reports provided by the states for this study: 36 plans in 24 states were so described.

Although falling far behind the frequency reported for state agencies, the role of legislative actions merits attention, for in 12 states, and 13 regionalization plans (9 in effect and 4 under study) this involvement was reported. The developmental experience of other earlier organizational shifts in American postsecondary education, for example, the community colleges demonstrate that permissive or enabling legislation abets the organizational change and considerably accelerates action concerning it. Whether or not this will be a distinguishable feature with respect to regionalization, of course, remains to be seen.

Finally, of note is the influential role of special studies of postsecondary education as presently operating in the state. Whether done as internal projects by staffs of state agencies or special commission, or by outside specialists or consultants for either standing or ad hoc auspices within the state, the accomplishment of special studies are also often mentioned as factors contributing to regionalism and consequent action to implement the concept.

Patterns of Regionalization

As yet no generalizable pattern appears evident among the approaches reported to regionalism by the several states. Among the five patterns identified from the description of the 45 regionalization plans available, the three encompassing most plans were: broad regional needs -- a pattern which seeks to meet broad postsecondary educational needs within each of several geographic regions established throughout the state (12 plans); specific areas needs -- a pattern to meet the postsecondary educational needs of a special, particular geographic sub-section of a state (15 plans); and specific program or section needs -- a pattern dealing with a single academic program or a single sub-section of postsecondary education (15 plans). Interstate arrangements -- a pattern involving either the entire state or a sub-section of a state with either the entire state or sub-sections of other states applied to 10 plans. The remaining pattern (institutional diversification -- a pattern of official encouragement of voluntary institutional actions to complement and supplement each other in a given area or program to develop a greater level of diversification in postsecondary education) was found applicable only to three plans.

At this moment in the development of postsecondary education, there is no evident justification for support of any one or even a few of the several patterns identified. It may well be the case that each can be supported as an approach to regionalism, having in each case its own merit. Put another way, there may be different purposes held for regionalism in a given state which to accomplish will require different rather than a common pattern of regionalization. This possibility is another of the continuing lines of inquiry to which further effort needs to be applied.

Objectives of Regionalism

This study established clearly that there are indeed different purposes held for regionalism in a particular state and for different regionalization plans. Most states reporting on their purposes (23 out of 24) stated that a better utilization of resources was the objective pursued, and this goal was set for 34 plans examined. This was the predominant purpose and reflects the pressures for more efficiency and productivity put upon state-level planning and coordinating agencies at this time.

No other purpose was even close to the goal of more effective resource utilization. The goal of increasing post-secondary educational opportunity and services in a region ran a poor second, 12 states and 17 plans. None of the other purposes identified (improving inter-institutional communications, helping form a base for long range planning, and strengthening postsecondary systems as organizations) were found to include as many as 10 states or plans.

Sources of Authority

Regionalism is implemented predominantly by three types of authority: administrative authority possessed by a unit of state government, legislative authority expressed in statutes, and authority held by established postsecondary educational institutions. Among these three, far and away the most common authoritative source giving life to regionalism is that held by administrative units in state government, sometimes the governor, as chief executive, but more often a state board of regents or statewide educational planning agency. This last was the case in nineteen states and twenty-two plans.

To be noted, however, because of the known effect that legislative authorization has upon developments statewide and across state lines when a significant number of legislatures act in a common direction, is the sizeable number of states and plans touched directly by the statutes. This was reported to be the case in nine states relating to ten plans, eight in effect and two under study. Some further importance may be evident in that all of these were in the New England, Mid-Atlantic, and North Central States; none was found in states grouped into the Western or Southeastern regions of the nation.

Contrary to the expectation first held in this study, relatively few officially recognized regional plans derive from simple authority of the postsecondary institutions involved. This was found present in four states relating to four plans. This finding is not interpreted, however, as suggesting that few voluntary inter-institutional arrangements to meet regional needs are to be found, for the facts show us clearly not true -- there are many. What it does seem to indicate, however, is that many of these have not yet been given an officially recognized status by a state-level agency with statewide authority -- one essential element in the definition set to

identify regionalism plans in this study. If regionalism and regionalization continue to attract increasing attention by statewide planning and coordinating agencies, such recognition of arrangements already set in motion by institutional action may show an increase.

Governance and Administration

As yet the structural arrangements attached to regionalism plans are amorphous; this seems to be the only tenable generalization coming from the information reported to this study. The fact is reflected in the paucity of information provided in response to the relatively unstructured call for descriptive information used in the study; while the reports dwelt often at length on other matters of interest, the matter of structure reflected much lower awareness or special interest. When the fifteen states and twenty-four plans for which information did come forth were examined, no more than a half-dozen or so (both of states and plans) reflected common practices in governance and administrative structure: this was true with respect to use of advisory boards, involvement of institutional governing boards, use of institutional member representation, and use of state agency representation.

The immature organizational status of the regionalization approaches in organizational terms is also evident in the fact that single, executive leadership is rarely present. Only three plans in as many states were reported to have an executive director.

Here again a caveat against possible misinterpretation should be advanced: it could be quite erroneous to conclude that since the present evidence of structure for governance and administration is weak, movement toward such organizational development will not occur. Again, the history of institutional developments tells a contrary conclusion. The matter needs more examination and more watching. It may well be, furthermore, that even incipient, early expressions of interest in developing more organizational identity to regionalization plans are suppressed to forestall their being viewed as threats to existing institutions or other established patterns for administering postsecondary education in a region. When a positive, cooperative, and non-threatening perception of regionalism can be established and maintained, chances of implementing plans to succeed are much greater than when the opposite situation exists.

Funding Patterns

As in the case of governance and administrative structures, this preliminary study did not get into the question of financing patterns for regionalization as an in-depth examination. Some useful data on nine regionalization plans in six states did come forward. These indicated that state and institutional funds were most heavily utilized; federal funds served to help two plans in two states and the same was true for use of private funds. Only two plans, one in New York and one in Illinois,drew on three different sources of funds; both used state and institutional funds, but, while one of the two used federal funds as the third source, the other relied on private resources.

Some Tentative Conclusions

Current literature in higher education abounds with news about the process of change in which the nation's postsecondary educational institutions are involved. A scholarly commission calls for concern for "More than Survival," (The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1975);[22] the executive head of a major national higher education association stumps the country, calling for a new national movement toward "community-based, performance-oriented, postsecondary education," (Gleazer, 1974);[23] the federal government passes legislation calling for state commissions for "state postsecondary education commissions" to carry on "comprehensive statewide planning" of "all public and private postsecondary educational resources in the state, including planning necessary for such resources to be better coordinated, improved, expanded, or altered so that all persons within the state who desire, and who can benefit from, postsecondary education may have the opportunity to do so." (Higher Education Amendments of 1972).[24]

All of these developments, and many others in evidence today, suggest that new forms for provision of postsecondary education are in the making. Regionalization plans in, between, and among the several states of the nation, may be one of these and that is why this study is to be a continuing one. A graduate student in higher education at the Pennsylvania State University perhaps posed the critical question, the answer to which may well determine the future course of regionalization in postsecondary education as an approach to state-level planning to merit regional needs. In the course of a

study examining the relative roles of state-level coordinating boards and local, institutional boards of community colleges, he asked, "Does the matter of regional needs represent a 'no man's land' in definition of local versus state authority?" (Sturtz).[25] The question was prompted by his recurrent observation of a split in views held by local as opposed to state officials in postsecondary education as to who should assess regional needs for postsecondary education and should plan for, and set policy to guide an effective educational reponse of those needs. Regionalism may be the first manifestation of awareness that the "no man's land" exists; and regionalization may be the way the now unclaimed domain of service will be entered without there having to be battle among the several existing postsecondary educational interests who have a claim to the right to serve it.

Conclusion: Some Implications for Community and Junior Colleges

Like the popular story told about the airline pilot who got lost in the fog and broke out of it just as the plane was about to run out of fuel, there is good news and bad news to be seen for community and junior colleges in the current interest in regionalism in postsecondary education. The positive possibilities lie in the prospects of a new leadership role for the community colleges as state agencies officially encourage aggregations of postsecondary educational interests to plan and work together to meet the needs of the state on a regional basis. Since this would be a step toward decentralization of statewide planning and coordination, it would be a step toward localism, and this is movement in the direction of the traditional strengths of the community and junior colleges.

That this is not idle speculation is evident in some of the leadership roles already being played by the community colleges in regional developments. Right here in Florida there is the example set by Valencia Community College, which in cooperation with a network of other postsecondary educational institutions over the nation, has sparked the developmental program known as "combase." In the regional plans in early stages of implementation in Illinois, New York, and Pennsylvania, the community and junior colleges are in the forefront of the activity.

The community and junior colleges have built in ad-

vantages for leadership in regionalism. Their historical commitment to full identification with localized service areas, to the use of citizens advisory committees, to the use of the resources in the locality for support and enrichment of their instructional and counseling programs, and to cooperative relationships with other agencies of community service -- all these establish a set of attitudes and a body of experience on which leadership in regionalism can be built. No other types of postsecondary educational institutions, with the possible exceptions of area vocational schools and some of the proprietary institutions, have the operating ties with local communities, and the body of experience in working them that is possessed by the community and junior colleges.

On this basis, another positive outcome possibly coming out of regionalism is a renewed or strengthened opportunity for community colleges to fulfill more completely and effectively one of the goals typically set for them, namely, that of improving the general condition and quality of life in their local communities. The reasons that this goal usually was approached as a secondary rather than primary one by most community colleges were, in the first place, that the college saw it as a lonely task demanding more resources than was sensed were available and, in the second, that it was a delicate undertaking which risked drawing irate opposition from other agencies and organizations in the locality whose interests lie also in postsecondary educational services. Since regionalism presumes collective action and open communication between and among all interests in the region, these barriers would appear to be easier to cross; and under such circumstances, the community and junior colleges would find allies and even new resources with which to join to the advantage and betterment of their local constituent communities.

Before leaping to the conclusion that this rather rosy picture of the future will indeed be created, a number of potential negative consequences of regionalism for community and junior colleges need to be noted. Two seem particularly ominous from the historical perspective of these institutions. One is the possible loss of institutional initiative in planning and programming to a new set of external influences. This was the general theme of an article Dr. Eileen Kuhns and I wrote and which was accepted for publication by Change magazine last fall; it is entitled, "Communiversity: A New Challenge for the Community College."[26] The notion of a regional network of post-

secondary educational resources banding together in a particular geographic region to form what he termed a "communiversity" was used by Dr. Samuel B. Gould in a series of lectures he delivered in 1970.[27] Regionalism and regionalization of postsecondary educational resources may be movement in the direction Gould indicated. Since, as described earlier, these new regional arrangements are developing at least the beginnings of new organizational forms, there is the possibility that all participant institutions in these arrangements will lose some individual identity and initiative to the larger and broader structure. At the least, a new set of external influences will need to be recognized and dealt with.

One course of action by community and junior colleges to prevent negative consequences from such a loss of institutional initiative to the broader regional arrangement could be a move to become dominant in the new structure. That kind of action, however, could lead to another negative consequence as seen from the community college perspective; it could generate movement away from the primary locality to which the college is identified, to a broader geographic and perhaps more complex constituency. Moving the focus of institutional concerns in that way would jeopardize continuation of local control, full responsiveness to the local constituency, and possibly the continuation of local material and political support. Taking a contrary point of view, some might argue that localism in the community college movement is over-emphasized and that regionalism really should prevail because it better serves the interest of these institutions in the long pull. In a way, what kind of debate would raise again the issues identified and analyzed thirty years ago by Leonard V. Koos in his critical examination of the relative merits of regional versus local community colleges.[28] The debate today would need to be treated differently, however, for there are now many other interests claiming to serve the goals of community college education which thirty years ago ignored or denied the validity of their worth.

This leads to my closing statement. You will notice that these concluding remarks have addressed themselves to some of the implications that can be seen in regionalism for community and junior colleges as institutions. I end with a return to the concept of community college education as a type of educational service rather than a particular type of institution. On the basis of the evidence that describes regionalism and regionalization in postsecondary education

currently at hand, there seems to be little reason for concern about continued progress toward accomplishment of the goals of community college education; quite the contrary, regionalism gives promise of a further achievement of these ideals. The question, then, is not whether or not the goals of community college education will be accomplished but by what form or arrangement of postsecondary educational institutions, programs, and resources this will be done. The observations taking shape around regionalism suggest that the community and junior colleges cannot control "where they go from here," that the "we" who will determine the future is a larger group, and that the leadership should start now to seek sharper understanding of the roles community and junior colleges can and should play in the new larger arrangements through which postsecondary education in America will likely function in the future.

FOOTNOTES

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CREATING AN ENVIRONMENT FOR LEARNING

by

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Is it possible to create an environment for learning so powerful that low-achieving students stay in college, achieve passing marks in courses, and enjoy the experience? There is now evidence that some community colleges have not only developed such therapeutic climates but can document results.

As a result of a three-year longitudinal study* related to this question, Professor Oscar Mink and I have examined selected environmental factors in the twelve participating colleges as they relate to greater student retention, improved levels of learning, and better student motivation.

Mink and I have found that the creation of such a growth-oriented climate is dependent upon all who comprise the organization -- from trustees and administrators to students and faculties. But the stage is usually set by the formal organizational leader, normally the college president.

Creating such an environment is not an easy undertaking. It requires that Board members and administrators take seriously the notion that community colleges exist to facilitate learning. It requires the college to accomodate individual differences. It necessitates institutional and organizational change and brings about and requires additional funds for staff development.

I am reminded of one community college where a bold president decided to get serious about the business of helping students stay in college and learn. With Board support, he arranged to transfer to other colleges in his district those teachers who had reservations about the abilities of urban Black youth to stay in school, to succeed, and to go on to "real world" success. He insisted that those who remain on campus and those newly recruited to the teaching and counseling staffs be committed to the notion that students can learn, and that teaching and counseling success would be measured against such student success. As a result, the college

*Funded by the National Institute for Mental Health

created an environment so powerful that students in this metropolitan setting came early and stayed late. A sense of pride developed about the institution, the teachers and counselors, and the students who studied there.

A therapeutic learning environment requires human caring and involvement by all professionals on the college staff. From Rosenthal and Jacobson's study of teacher expectations, we realize that the most powerful predictor of student success in any environment is likely to be what the individual teacher believes to be true of any student. Thus, teacher expectations (what teachers believe to be true of students) are probably the key factors in the design of a therapeutic environment for learning.

This evidence creates major problems for us, since our culture has long insisted that not all students are worthy - much less capable - of success. American education has served to sort students to the extent that 30 per cent of all first-graders who begin the public school experience never graduate from high school. Even more disconcerting, of those who enroll in universities (our very best students), 50 per cent never complete the baccalaureate experience. I know what the time-honored sages say to explain the process. They say, "The students had different objectives; and they met their objectives and went on to get married or to enter the job market." That might be true! But I suspect it is not! I suspect that the students become either turned off, tuned out, bored, or discouraged, and that they leave school to pursue other objectives that are more in keeping with the real world.

Over the past several years I have heard several college classes begin with the instructor explaining to his students why most of them will not do well in his class. I do not mean to generalize from these few specific cases to all community college teachers. Most community college teachers are committed to helping students learn. However, it is important to emphasize that when teachers have any doubts about the ability of students to learn, those doubts pervade their behavior. Not all teachers would stand in front of a classroom and tell the class that many of the students will not do well; but they may still harbor the same thoughts, and those expectations will eventually be perceived by the students.

Expectations (positive or negative) are communicated

daily. It may or may not have anything to do with the words we use. For example, I had a graduate professor who told us the first time the class convened that he was there to be of assistance to us and that, should we have any problems, we should merely seek him out. What the words on this page don't communicate is that his facial expression communicated anger, impatience, even hostility! What he really communicated to us was that under no circumstances should we bother him. His non-verbal behavior was so inconsistent with the words he uttered that we perceived the real message to be one of: "Leave me alone or you will be in trouble!" Most of us correctly heard the message.

In our NIMH study, Oscar Mink and I have assisted community college teachers and counselors in understanding and practicing behavior that communicates positive expectations and feelings to students.[1]

Community college teachers have always insisted that they are "student-centered," "caring," and "willing" to do what is necessary to help students learn." Let me suggest several ways by which teachers can demonstrate caring or show positive expectations for students.

1) Teachers should know their students. I know this sounds so simple as to be almost trite. What do we mean by "know students?" I mean, know the student as an individual, as a unique human being, to the point that you can call his name not only in class, but on the campus or in the student center. I was speaking at a community college recently and offered this same suggestion. A history instructor in the back of the room stood up and said, "I teach five sections of American history and have over 200 students enrolled this quarter. There is no way that I can learn the names of all those students." I asked him, "Would you like to know their names?" He responded, "You didn't understand. I said I have over 200 students and there is simply no way that I can learn the names of all those people." I asked him again, "Would you like to know their names?" He responded a third time, "It can't be done; and furthermore, students don't care if you

[1]For in-depth treatment, readers are referred to William Glasser's Reality Therapy. New York: Harper and Row, 1965 and Oscar Mink's The Behavior Change Process. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

know their names." He then blurted out, "And besides, they don't even know my name!" I asked him again, "Would you like to know the names of your students?" He finally understood my point. The truth is that any teacher can learn the names of their students in a very short period of time, provided knowing the names of students is a high teacher priority. It may require that an instructor devote the first few class sessions to really getting to know students and for them to know each other, but we are finding that the "sacrifice of immediate content coverage" is actually a sound investment in student learning.

In our study, we are finding higher retention, better achievement, and greater self-direction among students where teachers "invest time" in students. Several teachers report that students now master content to higher levels than was the case when all learners were immediately plunged into the varied reasons for Columbus sailing west in 1492.

2) Teachers demonstrate caring or expectations by attending to each student. Over the past two years I have been working with a local school district on a project to evaluate classroom teaching. Last fall I observed a fifth grade social studies class that was composed of 65 per cent minority children. The classroom teacher knew that I would be present, and she had carefully primed and motivated her students to do well for an outside visitor. The teacher used a Socratic, didactic method of teaching: she would talk for a few moments, then ask a question. The first question she asked had excellent response - every single hand in the room was in the air. The teacher called upon a pretty blue-eyed, blond-haired girl. By the time the teacher had asked the tenth question, she had not called upon a single minority student. Accordingly, the numbers of minority students who kept raising their hands decreased with each question. At the end of the class, the teacher was ecstatic, saying that this had been one of the best classes she had ever taught. I asked how she explained the number of students who did not raise their hands after the first few questions. She responded, "If you had ever taught elementary school, you would understand that. Most students read the first page or two of a chapter and then they don't read anything else." I then described what I saw happening to her and pointed out that it took ten questions before she called upon a Spanish-speaking student. She blurted out, "I didn't realize that. It wasn't deliberate on my part." The teacher had not given any tests yet, and she

honestly did not know which students might perform best on her evaluation efforts. She had been told, however, that she had some "good" students in her class. These "good" students had been identified by other teachers who had had them in their classes previously, and this teacher was communicating her expectations by repeatedly calling upon these same students. She knew they would not disappoint her. At the same time, she was communicating to the other students in the room that she did not honestly expect them to do well. It was little wonder that after ten minutes of class time, most of the minority students were looking out the window, reading comic books, doodling, or simply looking bored. This example simply serves to demonstrate that what we honestly believe to be true of our students is communicated by our daily behavior.

It is important here to emphasize that "caring" is more than a feeling or attitude on the part of an instructor. "Caring" is communicated to students by what teachers say and do. Teacher behavior is what students observe most.

3) Teachers demonstrate caring and positive expectations by affirming students as "OK" people. I refer here to the ability of the teacher to be a warm human being with the student. So many of us get into teaching because of our need to feel OK ourselves that we never allow the students to be anything more than "a student." We need to be aware that community college students need constant reaffirmation, since so many of them come out of experiences that leave them feeling they are not so OK.

Most human behavior is guided by the individual's own belief that he can or cannot do something. If we ever believe that we cannot do something, then our chances of doing it are rather remote. If students are affirmed in terms of teacher expectations to be OK as people, their own motivations and attitudes will certainly improve. Our study documents this rather dramatically.

4) Teachers demonstrate caring and positive expectations by giving of themselves to students. It is of little value to say that you are available to students if in fact you are not. Students quickly know how accessible teachers are. They also quickly learn how willing teachers are to be interrupted or bothered. Office hours mean little in a community college; accessibility to students is the key. A teacher who will take

time to seek out students demonstrates caring and positive expectations. On several visits to El Centro College, I watched the writing lab instructor go into the Student Center and "round up" her students before the writing lab class began. She was not only giving of herself to her students, she was also communicating to these students, "I am not going to let you miss class. I care too much about you to let you shoot pool or dance while class is going on. I am taking responsibility for seeing that you succeed."

During the past semester, I was invited to meet with the developmental studies faculty at Santa Fe Community College. I found that 93% of all students who began their program last fall completed the entire year. I also found that whenever a student missed a class, he was visited that very day by his instructor or by a peer tutor. Giving of yourself pays off in unheard of ways.

5) A fifth indicator of teacher caring and positive expectation pertains to what I call daily "monitoring" of student achievement. I am not referring here to the more traditional pop quiz. Rather, I am suggesting that teachers need to survey student performance on a daily basis (with developmental students, twice a day during the first month of school is not too frequent.) Students need reinforcement, and teachers need to know when student confusion occurs. Daily monitoring of student learning is one way of finding out when students become confused, and being able to assist a student at his precise moment of confusion is the best remedy for his problem. For the student, daily monitoring provides continual reinforcement and helps him realize that he can learn and that he is being given every opportunity to succeed. All of us like positive feedback; and the more immediate it can be, the more powerful it is on our individual motivations and attitudes. Any teacher who waits three or four weeks into the semester to assess student achievement is simply waiting too long to positively affect the student's motivation and attitudes.

Obviously, the list could go on. It is important to close by emphasizing that powerful learning environments have been developed in community colleges around the nation, and we now have hard data to document their impact as measured by better retention, improved achievement, and greater student self-direction.

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PLANNING: IS IT WORTHWHILE?

by

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The idea of my asking the question "Is Planning Worthwhile?" seems a little ludicrous since most of my professional career has been devoted to planning and the value thereof. The fact that planning might not be worthwhile is something that never really occurred to me. Planning is sort of like "apple pie and motherhood," all those things that one accepts as being something one must do.

There are places, however, when one can evaluate whether the kind of planning that is done is really worthwhile. For example, we do hear criticisms of planning which are valid and really hit a chord of response, particularly among those who are not in administrative roles in institutions. The criticism that planning is an activity of the administration is one which, in some instances, represents a valid criticism. Planning has, in some instances, been unsuccessful or partially successful because it has been carried out by only that portion of the college community. Harold Enarson wrote a speech recently in which he was being very critical of planning activities as found in many colleges. Enarson referred to planning as an art, but mostly a bad art. If planning is a bad art, such a state must have come about because the artist himself has not applied proper methodology in developing the plan. A second criticism is that planning most often consists of accumulating data, a mere collection of facts. You are familiar with the stacks of IBM printouts which sit on people's desks or in the corner gathering dust because they are simply an accumulation of facts and information--with no purpose. One of the difficulties in making projections for the future is that such projections are based on data obtained from the past. Often those data are so inadequate that all one can do is to play the computer games. In this instance, planning has been resolved into a simple little computer game. In fact, one of the interesting stimulations that people use in the planning is a game called Monte Carlo.

A fourth problem in planning is defining problems too

narrowly, looking at the trees instead of the forest; expressing concern with minutia, instead of the big picture.

On the other hand, a fifth problem is that planning is defined too broadly. One never gets an answer because the plan is defined so broadly that it has no meaning. A sixth criticism which we often hear of planning, is that it is sort of chasing rabbits. Here again Emerson described a metaphor--an untrained hound dog that is in hot pursuit of a bobcat, unless watched carefully, will turn off of his trail when a rabbit crosses the track and go after the rabbit. In other words, a lot of our planning ends with nothing happening because, although we are in the process of chasing a bobcat, we end up running after a rabbit.

In spite of all these criticisms and comments about the validity and need for planning, one also sees many examples of the benefits of planning. Planning must be both long- and short-range. It must consider human resources as the most important kind of resources. The legislature, about ten years ago, became concerned about planning in our State--all through the various levels of our State government. In the late 1960's and early 1970's, they passed several laws which made planning a matter of requirement and not something of choice. For example, the Government Reorganization Act of Florida requires that heads of departments "compile annually a comprehensive program budget covering such periods as may be required; reflecting all programs and fiscal matters relating to the operation of his department, each program, or sub-program, and acting therein in such other matters as may be required by law." In other words, Florida law does not really give one the option "to plan or not to plan;" it requires planning! In addition, it requires that planning be done using six-year data from the past and six-year data projections into the future. This is similar to laws found in other states.

Planning is not merely a concern of Florida governmen. Someone said planning is mainly designed to help us avoid the mistakes we are liable to make anyway. Planning really becomes an activity which we carry on to take the best advantage--no matter what happens. If we have good plans we may not be able to follow them exactly, but at least we will be better off than if we have no plans.

About a year and a half ago, Lee G. Henderson, State

Director of Community Colleges for Florida, took a summer period off; and with help from the Southeastern Community College Leadership Program (jointly sponsored by The Florida State University and The University of Florida), spent some time traveling around the country looking at what other states were doing in planning for community colleges. As a result of that trip, he wrote a monograph dealing with state planning in Florida. In this monograph, Henderson emphasized several things that warrant particular attention. First, he talked about educational renewal being a basic part of the philosophy of planning. He defined educational renewal as a process whereby goals and objectives are continually modified to meet the changing needs of clients. In other words, the objective of planning, that this Institution and the other institutions in the State would have as a major goal, would be educational renewal.

As a result of this, planning must be based upon three very important elements. There must be the identification of clearly stated goals; there must be a way of evaluating how well the goals are met; and, there must be a methodology for identifying alternatives for future actions. In other words, the responsibility in planning is to approach the problem as a change agent. Now change agents are not always very successful. In fact, a book by Bushnell outlines some of the reasons why change agents have been unsuccessful in several specific situations around the country. One of the things that Bushnell noted in his analysis was that when you try to change only a part of an operation and do not try to reconstruct the entire operation, you will not be successful. For instance, he was looking at an elementary school system in Illinois which had been trying to develop some innovative procedures in elementary teaching.. After a year and a half of not being successful, they brought in a team of people to try to discover why the experiment was not being successful. One of the things they discovered was that although the teachers had very quickly and willingly jumped in and become involved in a number of innovative processes in the classroom, others were still evaluating the teacher and the student on the same basis as before. Now, how can anything happen in this sort of situation when the evaluation at the end of the experience is based upon another methodology entirely. No wonder the innovation was falling flat. Bushnell observed this as a reason why change agents are often unsuccessful in accomplishing change.

Therefore, the planning activity must include the whole picture, not just a part of the picture. In other words, we have to diagnose the problem, formulate and reexamine our objectives. We have to identify the constraints that keep us from accomplishing our objectives. We have to select several potential solutions and evaluate each of these solutions as they relate to each other, and then implement the most viable alternative. Basically, planning is the proposition of saying in specific terms where you are going and how you expect to get there. It is a vehicle which you can use to shape the environment rather than merely reacting to what the environment does to you. It is a way of establishing sound guidelines which permit one to operate effectively and efficiently without having to develop new programs or procedures to meet new situations. In other words, you have a situation that is already partially there. It is a way of defining stability without becoming stagnant. Actually, you might even call it dynamic stability. It enables one to examine progress in relationship to where you think you want to go--your goals. It permits you to establish priorities and look at alternatives without having to take action before those alternatives prove to be wrong. It helps make good use of limited resources. It provides an appropriate and intelligent rationale for making decisions.

The real problems in planning are not those criticisms I mentioned earlier. There are some very real problems of planning. Let's look at those for a few minutes.

We are involved in higher education and trying to reemphasize a purpose; something we have never done before. One of our big problems with planning is that we have been concerned with outputs when previously we have always been concerned with inputs. Most of our planning has been input oriented planning. We plan all the things we are putting into the situation and give very little attention to planning what we expect the results to be from these benefits. Therefore, our planning has difficulties because we are not looking at the whole picture. A second problem relative to planning is we often look at the product not giving enough attention to the process. I do not know how many states planned community college programs which are now in nice volumes but not implemented because no one paid any attention to them after they were done. The process of those particular plans was not a good process because it did not result in action. This quite often happens in planning, particularly where the

planner is someone from outside who is not vitally and integrally involved in the operation.. The third problem is very closely related to the second. I mentioned earlier that one of the criticisms of planning is that it is often viewed as an activity of the administration. If it is an activity of the administration, then it is going to be a limited type of planning and probably less than successful. An important decision in the planning process is who should be involved in the planning. This is a real problem. Everybody must be involved to some extent. In the college community it involves the students, the faculty, the administration, the trustees, and the citizens in the community. Each of these groups may not be involved in all the same way and in equal measure, but all of them must be involved in an appropriate measure and in appropriate ways. This is an important part of the process of planning.

A fourth problem is the decision concerning the levels at which decisions are made. One of the difficult problems your institution faces, as well as othe institutions in Florida and around the country, is the relationship of the classroom teacher, the individual faculty member, to the department. Which decisions does an individual teacher make and which ones are departmental decisions. If you are in a large department where there are fifteen teachers teaching the same subject, do you clearly understand which decisions the teacher makes about evaluation methodology, textbooks, course content, and which decisions are made collectively by the department? Secondly, stepping beyond that, which decisions are made by the department and which are made by a division (when several departments comprise a division)? Where does the decision level for various kinds of decisions remain? Which decisions are made by the campus as differentiated from the college as a whole? One that often concerns people particularly these days is, what decisions are to be made by the local administration or Board of Trustees and which are to be made by the State? Lyman Glenny and Bob Mautz are currently championing a conclusion which may or may not be true. They are gathering evidence which indicates it is true and I think some of our recent experiences in Florida may indicate that it is true. Coordinating boards, such as the Florida Board of Regents and the Florida State Board of Education, have lost a great deal of their responsibility and authority in very recent years. Unfortunately this loss does not return authority to the institutions, which is the way most everybody would have hoped it would go;

but instead, the authority is passed on to the legislature. Coordination activities have been taken over by the legislature. Decisions are being made by the legislature in various states which formerly had been made by coordinating boards. Most people in professional education do not think this is a positive direction for decision making. This is a very important decision in reference to the process of planning. The level at which decisions are made has a very integral part to play in the whole planning process.

A fifth problem, which is a very real problem in planning, is the ability to obtain comparable data. You cannot compare course with course, division with division, campus with campus, college with college, unless you have data which are comparable. Using common terminology, the simple piece of data, like defining a full-time equivalent student, is a very difficult problem. Lou Bender and I have been working with state records for community colleges for a number of years. We have tried for five years to get the fifty state directors to come to a common agreement on what is a full-time equivalent student. This is impossible. The reason it is impossible is because each state has defined full-time equivalent in ways that are indigenous and advantageous to that particular state and situation. To execute any sort of a change would upset procedures. So, there is not much we can do to get a common definition for a full-time equivalent student for all 50 of the United States. Credit and non-credit is another problem area for obtaining comparable data. Many reports are conflicting with other reports since the data base is not the same.

The sixth problem in planning is differentiating between short-and long-range planning. It is sometimes necessary to head in one direction to achieve short-range goals and then reverse your field, so to speak, to attain long-range goals. This is not always well understood, not always adequately explained and not always carried out. And that fact causes another kind of problem, the seventh problem. The seventh problem is based upon a philosophy of futurology. I am sure that you have heard of the Hudson Institute. Herbert Kahn, Director, describes two types of futurology needed in order to accomplish operational planning. There is descriptive futurology in which one predicts what is going to happen in the future and then adjusts his actions to accomodate this prediction. The other kind of futurology is called normal futurology. Normative futurology looks at what may happen

in the future. One then takes action which will affect that future. In other words, in planning, you can either control to some extent what happens in the future by using a philosophy of normative futurology or you can merely react to what happens in the future by using a philosophy of descriptive futurology. I think the dichotomy between these two kinds of actions really has a great deal of influence on the kind of planning you may do.

But what do we know about the future? J.W. Forrester, who works for Westinghouse, said there were three things we know about the future: first, it will not be like the past (we know it is going to be different from what the past has been); secondly, it is very likely that the future will not be like we think it's going to be; and thirdly, the rate of change will be faster than ever before. To the three items that Mr. Forrester mentioned, Green and Winstead added a fourth--Murphy's Law. Murphy's Law says that if anything can possibly go wrong, it will. So if we know the future is not going to be like the past, we know it's not going to like we think it's going to be, and we know that the rate of change will be faster than ever before, and that if anything can possibly go wrong, it will; we do have a problem in planning.

The planning process must take into account both the real and unreal problems and must follow some very essential steps. First, you cannot plan without some sort of organizational structure. There are five major functions within a college operation. These functions are the executive role, the academic and instructional role, the student personnel service role, the business operational role and the research, planning and development role. In most of the colleges in this country, the last function is inadequately handled and has little if any organizational structure. Fortunately, in Florida this is not true. The development of the Interinstitutional Research Council at Gainesville has given us a basis for doing research that has mutual value for all Florida community colleges.

The second step in planning, after you have established the organization, is determining the institution's objectives. Here again we have been fortunate in Florida in having a role assigned by the Legislature. We also have very excellent leadership at the local level which has aided in the establishment of specific objectives for each institution. For example, it's very impressive to see the differences between the various

community colleges in Florida that are covered by the legislatively assigned role. Your particular institution, with its emphasis on astronomy and the space industry has a role to play that is very different from other institutions in the State. Other institutions have their own types of specialties which gives them a reason for relating to their own community.

A third step is to clarify and quantify the existing state of the institution--where we are, where have we been? We have to analyze our existing program. The self-study process, which all of our institutions have carried on, has been an important part of this action. In carrying out a self-study, Green and Winstead, listed the kinds of data which seem to be essential in the development of planning. First of all, an institution has to clarify its own mission. It has to take what information it has from laws, regulations, and other places and clarify its own mission --- clarify it in a way that can be carried out in the local situation. Secondly, an institution has to look at its environment. It has to look at the economy within which it is existing. It has to look at the political structure within which it exists. It has to look at the kind of local influences that affect its daily life. Thirdly, an institution has to look at its capabilities. What is it capable of doing and what does it need if it's going to be more capable? Fourth, an institution has to make certain of its part in the total picture of higher education.

On the basis of this information, the institution has to quantify and qualify its own goals and objectives for an immediate short-range plan, as well as a long-range plan. Then, the institution has to develop stragegies and programs which carry out these goals and objectives. In some instances it may have to establish priorities and schedules because all things cannot be done at the same time. This is particularly evident when resources become more scarce. There have to be some basic decisions about what is going to be emphasized and given first priority. There must be an organizational structure set-up to carry out these particular priorities. Resources must be allocated to achieve these priorities. The final step, which we often do not take, is the process of evaluation.. There must be a well-developed and continuous methodology for evaluating where we have been, what we have done, and how well we have done it.

After these things have been done, then we can develop

a model for what we would like the future to be. Actually, this model ought to be based on both normative and descriptive futurology. We ought to project the future, assuming we can control certain factors in the future. And finally, we ought to blue-sky a little bit and develop a scenario which describes what we would like the future to be. When we have found out where we are, where we would like to go, and where we are likely to go, then we can identify the gaps in between these points. That's the action we need to plan.

When one asks if planning is worthwhile, I guess it becomes a foolish question. Planning is not only worthwhile, it's essential, necessary, and required. The most important part of planning, the item I would want to emphasize most, is that it is a process which involves the entire college community and it is far more important than the product you would have in the end without the process.

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